



Review

Decahedral TiO_2 with exposed facets: Synthesis, properties, photoactivity and applications

Ewelina Grabowska*, Magdalena Diak, Martyna Marchelek, Adriana Zaleska

Department of Environmental Technology, Faculty of Chemistry, University of Gdansk, Wita Stwosza 63, PL80-952 Gdansk, Poland

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ABSTRACT

As an important metal oxide, titanium dioxide has been widely investigated because of its unique surface, electronic, and photocatalytic properties, which make this material applicable in many areas of science and technology ranging from adsorption, catalysis and photocatalysis to biomedicine, environmental monitoring and cleanup, energy conversion and storage, etc. The properties of anatase TiO_2 crystals are largely determined by external facets exposed. Since the breakthrough in synthesizing anatase TiO_2 single crystals with a large percentage of highly reactive (001) facets in 2008, many unusual properties and applications of these (001) facets dominant in anatase TiO_2 have been explored theoretically and experimentally, showing the industrial importance of this semiconductor material. Here we review the recent progress in synthesizing many various synthetic methods and photocatalytic activity TiO_2 with exposed crystal facets with different technologies.

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1. Introduction

Semiconductor particles and attractive materials photocatalysts because of the large number of surface reaction sites, and semiconductor particles with large surface area have been utilized for various kinds of photocatalytic reaction, such as organic decomposition and water splitting [1–7]. As one of the most important photocatalysts, TiO_2 -based materials have demonstrated a great potential in many applications, including water splitting to generate O_2 and H_2 [8–15], a sustainable process for treatment of water and wastewater [16–18], gas phase treatment [19–23] as well as in solar cells [24–28] and self-cleaning surfaces [29–33].

According to the Wulff construction, the equilibrium shape of an anatase crystal is a slightly truncated tetragonal bipyramid enclosed by eight (101) facets and two (001) facets, with the most stable (101) facets accounting for 94% of the total surface (Fig. 1) [34]. Based on the photo-oxidation reaction results, it was stated that the sharp TiO_2 anatase nanocrystals with a long distance in the (001) direction ($d_{(001)}$) has a high photocatalytic activity. Moreover, it has been reported that titanium (IV) oxide (TiO_2) particles with specific exposed crystal faces, i.e., decahedral anatase with (101) and (001) exposed crystal faces and dodecahedral rutile with (110) and (101) exposed crystal faces, showed excellent photocatalytic activity despite the large particle size ($\sim 1 \mu\text{m}$) [35–39]. Murakami et al. indicated that different energy levels of conduction and valence bands, which are determined by the arrangement and kind of constituent atoms, drive the electrons and positive holes to different exposed crystal faces, resulting in a decrease in the back-reaction rate by predominant progress of reduction and

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +48 58 523 52 22.

E-mail address: ewelina.grabowska@ug.edu.pl (E. Grabowska).

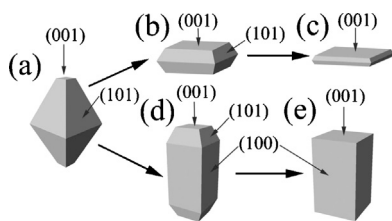


Fig. 1. Schematic drawings of anatase shapes: (a) slightly truncated tetragonal bipyramid with dominant (101) facets (equilibrium crystal shape); (b) truncated tetragonal bipyramid with a large percentage of top (001) facets; (c) square sheet with dominant (001) facets; (d) elongated truncated tetragonal bipyramid with a large percentage of lateral (100) facets; (e) tetragonal cuboid enclosed by (100) and (001) facets. Reprinted from ref. [34].

oxidation on each crystal face [40]. It was shown that optical, magnetic, dielectric, and chemical properties of a particle are depend on the shape of the crystal particle [41,42], while an electrode experiment using single-crystal rutile TiO_2 has indicated that photoelectrochemical properties also depend on the kind of exposed crystal face [43,44]. The results of those studies suggest that it is possible to optimize activity of a specific photocatalytic reaction by controlling the kind and surface area of the exposed crystal face on semiconductor particles [40].

Design and morphological control of crystal facets is a commonly employed strategy to optimize the performance of various crystalline catalysts from noble metals to semiconductors [39,45,46]. The basis of this strategy is that surface atomic configuration and coordination, which inherently determine their heterogeneous photoreactivity, can be finely tuned by morphological control. The conventional understanding of the surface atomic structure of a crystal is that facets with a higher percentage of undercoordinated atoms are usually more reactive in heterogeneous reactions. For instance (001) facets of anatase TiO_2 are considered to be more reactive than (101) [39].

The key to controlling the percentage of crystal facets of anatase crystals is to change the relative stability of each facet during crystal growth, which is intrinsically determined by the surface energies of the facets. Surface energy is a thermodynamic property that is known to be very effective in changing the surface energy of TiO_2 facets and thus the percentage of facets [39]. Results have shown that the percentage of (001) facets of anatase crystals can be increased from 18 up to about 50%, depending on the different synthesis routes. These results indicate that other facets such as (010), the surface energy of which (0.53 J m^{-2}), between those of (101) (0.44 J m^{-2}) and (001) (0.50 J m^{-2}) [47,48], might also be acquired by fine-tuning parameters in a given synthesis route so that a favorable surface energy for growing such facets can be obtained. When surface-adsorbed fluorine atoms are used as the morphological controlling agent, clean facets are easily obtained by simple calcination [49].

Decahedral anatase crystals are obtained by three main approaches: (1) hydrothermal/solvothermal route [38,40,49–58], (2) hydrolysis of TiO_2 precursor in ethylene glycol [59], or (3) by gas phase reaction [37,60], as schematically shown in Fig. 2. Importantly, all hydrothermal/solvothermal synthesis routes, reported to prepare anatase TiO_2 crystals with high-energy facets, used F-containing compounds as capping agents to control the morphology, which is quite toxic and corrosive. Thus, it is highly desirable to develop a new synthesis strategy with reduced or no fluorine containing compounds as capping agents. More importantly, organic surfactants adsorbing onto the surfaces can also remarkably change the free energy of these surfaces and interfacial properties, but the choice of surfactant remains empirical due to many unsolved issues including a quantitative description of the adsorption behavior and in-depth understanding of selective surface-adsorption energies on nanocrystals.

Considering so many breakthroughs have been reported and the fast advances in the preparation of TiO_2 with exposed facets in the past few years, we believe that a comprehensive review of this important functional material will further promote the research in this field. Moreover the attention will concentrate on the mechanisms of shape evaluation of TiO_2 , photocatalytic activity of different sites of TiO_2 facets and applications of TiO_2 dominated with highly reactive facets.

2. Mechanism of shape evolution of TiO_2

The energy of the terminated surface of a solid material is always higher than that of the bulk and this energy difference is defined as the surface energy. Based on surface energies of all facets, one can use the Wulff construction to determine the equilibrium morphology of a material. In the Wulff construction, surface energy minimization is the central standard to optimize the composition of the crystal surface [61].

The truncated octahedron bipyramid, having eight (101) facets and two (001) facets, is the most popular crystal shape observed in nature and the most common shape of anatase crystals based on Wulff construction [62,63]. To increase the size of anatase TiO_2 crystals with dominant high-energy (001) facets, the crystal growth should be confined within a kinetically controlled regime under non equilibrium conditions [48].

Murakami et al. proposed a plausible mechanism of shape evolution of anatase particles in the presence of polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) (Fig. 3a):

- (1) formation of anatase rods having stacked structure with decahedral anatase with (101) and (001) crystal faces and growth in the (001) direction;
- (2) transformation of anatase rods into octahedral anatase by size reduction along the (001) direction or by being split along the (001) plane in the dissolution process;
- (3) growth of anatase particle in the (001) direction with exposure of the (101) crystal face and evolution of decahedral anatase with large $d_{A(004)}$ in the recrystallization process [40].

Murakami et al. stated that the presence of PVA prevented the nucleation of rutile phase. Moreover, fine particles with a narrow size distribution that were prepared under an acidic condition, suggest that PVA may lead a prevention of aggregation and a formation of a flat exposed surface by adsorption on TiO_2 in the crystallization process [40].

The mechanism of anatase TiO_2 single crystals formation with 27–50% reactive (001) facets via a microwave-enhanced ionothermal method was explained by Zhang et al. (Fig. 3b) [64]. An aqueous solution of titanium tetrafluoride and ionic liquid (1-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate) were involved during preparation procedure. In the microwave frequency range, polar molecules, such as H_2O , orientate with the electric field. When dipolar molecules reorientate with respect to an alternating electric field, they lose energy in the form of heat by molecular friction. The ability of the solvent to heat in the microwave field is dependent on the dielectric loss constant. Because water has high dielectric losses it is an ideal solvent for microwave rapid heating. The ionic liquid in this reaction system provides a synergistic effect to absorb the microwaves. This may explain why this method is efficient in the synthesis of anatase single-crystals [64]. A control experiment by using conventional hydrothermal conditions shows that at least 48 h were required for the synthesis of TiO_2 single-crystals exposed with (001) facets. The SEM image confirmed that anatase TiO_2 single-crystals are highly aggregated sheets. These results indicate that microwaves can provide rapid and uniform heating of reagent and solvents. Fast heating accelerates the hydrolysis of TiF_4 and

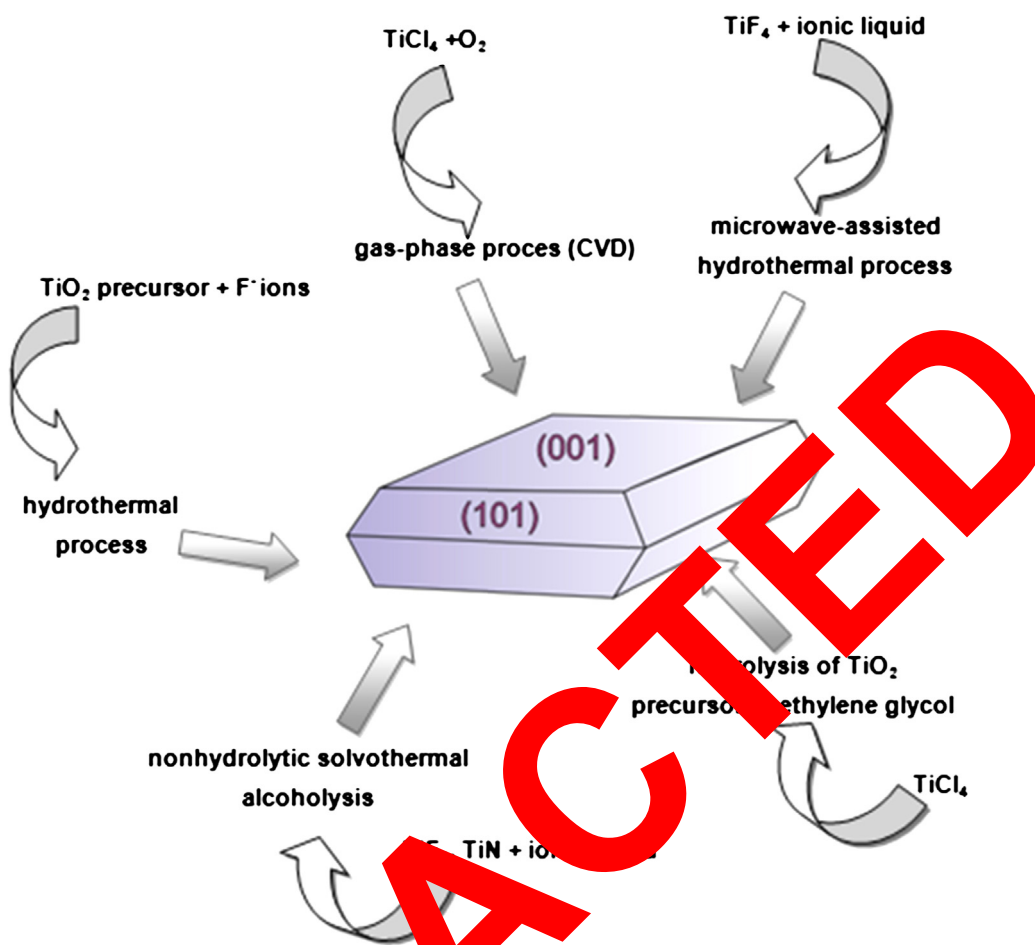


Fig. 1. Possible preparation routes of decahedral TiO_2 .

nucleation of the anatase cluster. The homogeneous microwave heating also provides uniform nucleation and growth of crystals, leading to anatase TiO_2 with a narrow size distribution. Furthermore, due to rapid and homogeneous microwave heating, a better crystallinity can be obtained. These high-quality TiO_2 single-crystals exposed with (001) facets can be synthesized with a high yield [64]. Their results demonstrated also that the F-rich environment, attributed to the ionic liquid, is a key determinant to form (001) facets exposed anatase TiO_2 single crystals. When the content of ionic liquids increased from 0.14 M to 0.54 M, the ratio of surface area of reactive (001) facets to total surface area increased from 27 to 51%. They concluded that the more bulky (BF_4^-) groups can promote the preferred growth of the (001) facets.

In a third synthesis route, fluorine species (e.g. HF) are introduced as a reagent to reduce surface energies of anatase TiO_2 , especially (001) facets, which leads to a large percentage of the reactive (001) facets exposed in final assemblies or films of titanium with the largest exposure area. Wu et al. proposed possible reactions involved in the Ti–HF interactions under a hydrothermal condition include [65]:



Anatase nanocrystals shaped as truncated bipyramids are generally achieved in such a HF-mediated synthesis. Wu et al. investigated that HF acts as a corrosive to attack the Ti plate to release finally Ti(IV)-hydrates into the reactants for titania precipitations; at the same time, the selective absorption of F^- ions on the

(001) facets of anatase crystals achieved the formation of truncated bipyramids [65]. They also observed that the increasing HF concentration not only resulted in more Ti(IV)-hydrates in solutions, but also enhanced retarding effects for the vanish of facets other than (001) during the crystal growth; therefore, it is not surprising that an increasing HF concentration favored the growth of larger anatase single crystals with the shape of highly truncated bipyramids [65].

Gordon et al. reported non aqueous surfactant-assisted solvothermal synthesis of highly uniform anatase TiO_2 nanocrystals (NCs) with tailorable morphology in the 10–100 nm size regime, prepared through a seeded growth technique [66–68]. Small TiO_2 nanocrystallites (or “seeds”) are firstly formed by combining a small quantity of titanium(IV) halide (TiX_4) dissolved in oleic acid (OLAC) with a large molar excess of the co-surfactant (oleylamine (OLAM) or 1-octadecanol (1-ODOL) in solvent 1-octadecene (1-ODE) and quickly heating to 290 °C under nitrogen atmosphere [66]. This method was described to design the percentage of (001) and (101) facets through the choice of co-surfactant and titanium precursor and to demonstrate that the choice of both titanium precursor and co-surfactants dramatically influences the morphology of TiO_2 NCs. Gordon et al. suggested, that in the first step of the synthesis, the dissolution of TiX_4 precursors occurs in the presence of OLAC [66]. It is known from the literature that short chain carboxylic acids have been shown to complex with TiCl_4 at low temperature in non-aqueous solutions, resulting in the formation of stable mono- and polynuclear chlorotitanium carboxylate complexes and the release of HCl [69]. Authors expect that the coordination of OLAC with titanium centers upon dissolution of titanium(IV) halides (TiX_4) into solutions of OLAC/1-ODE, releasing hydrohalic acids (HX) into the solution. In the case of TiF_4 , this translates to the *in situ* release of

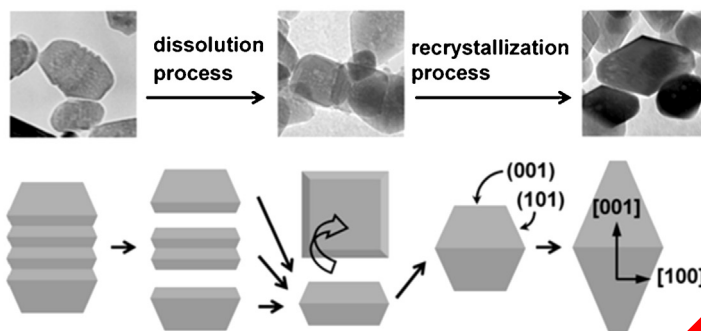
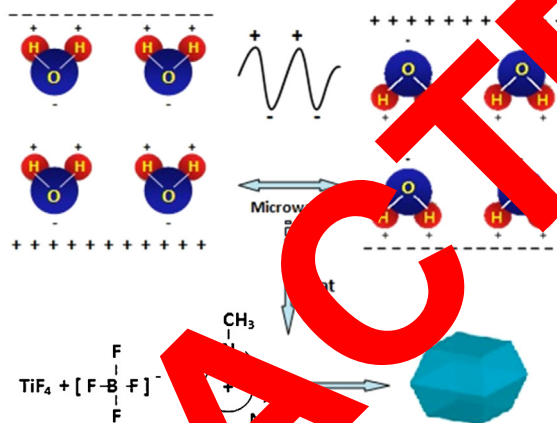
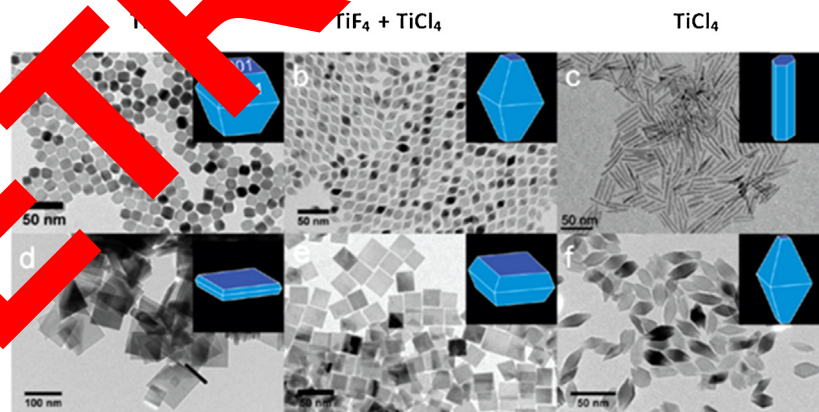
a) Anatase TiO_2 evolution in the presence of PVAb) Formation mechanism of TiO_2 in the presence of ionic liquidc) Nonaqueous surfactant-assisted synthesis of anatase TiO_2 

Fig. 3. Schematic route of shape evolution of TiO_2 with exposed {001} facets in the presence of: (a) PVA (adapted from ref. [40]), (b) ionic liquid and microwaves (adapted from ref. [64]), and (c) different co-surfactants and different TiO_2 precursors (TiCl_4 and TiF_4) (adapted from ref. [66]).

HF, which acts as a shape directing agent, providing the fluoride ions which bind selectively to the {001} facet of anatase TiO_2 and manipulate the shape of the nanoparticles [66]. They found, that depending on the choice of co-surfactant and titanium(IV) halide (TiX_4) under otherwise identical reaction conditions, the following nanostructures could be obtained (Fig. 3c):

- highly uniform tetragonal bipyramidal anatase (co-surfactant: oleylamine; precursor: TiF_4),
- pure phase brookite nanorods (co-surfactant: oleylamine; precursor: TiCl_4),
- anatase nanoplates with a high percentage of {001} facets (co-surfactant: 1-octadecanol; precursor: TiF_4),
- tetragonal bipyramidal anatase with primarily {101} facets (co-surfactant: 1-octadecanol; precursor: TiCl_4),
- monodisperse anatase tetragonal bipyramidal nanoparticles with small percentage of {001} facets (co-surfactant: oleylamine; precursor: mixture of TiCl_4 and TiF_4),

- nanoplates with large percentage of (001) facets (co-surfactant: 1-octadecanol; precursor: mixture of TiCl_4 and TiF_4) [66].

Even more green route to prepare decahedral-shaped anatase via gas phase reaction of TiCl_4 with O_2 , without adding any fluorine compounds, was developed by Ohtani group [37,60]. They showed, that the decahedral-shaped anatase particles with primary particle size of 70 nm can be prepared by using either a burner or an electric furnace in a gas phase reaction process comprising rapid heating and rapid quenching conditions.

The density, size distribution and surface chemistry of the resulting crystalline nucleus is highly dependent on the reaction environment of the solution. The morphological structure including percentage content of (001) facets can be modified by changing preparation conditions and it is well established that solvents, impurities and additives in solution can substantially influence the ultimate shape of the crystals. In summary, the solvent effect on the crystal shape is generated via the varied solvent–solute interactions along different orientations of a crystal. This is because surface atomic arrangement and thus surface affinity for the solvent to each orientation is different, which can certainly affect the growth rates to the crystal surfaces and hence the final shape of the crystal [61].

3. Oxidation and reduction sites on TiO_2 particles

Ohno et al. reported that oxidation site and reduction site on the rutile particles are on the (011) face and on the (110) face, respectively [35]. For anatase particles, they suggested that the (001) face provides the effective oxidation site, while the (011) face works as the reduction site [35]. Thus, they expected different energy levels of the conduction and valence bands for different crystal faces of TiO_2 because of the atomic arrangements characteristic of these faces. The difference in the energy levels directs the electrons and holes to different crystal faces, to separation of electrons and holes. This separation is probably the key to the high efficiency of some photocatalytic reactions, such as water oxidation, which require band bending in TiO_2 . It was also indicated that different energy levels of conduction and valence bands, which are determined by the arrangement and kind of constituent atoms, drive the electrons and holes to different exposed crystal faces, resulting in a decrease in the back-reaction rate by predominant progress of reduction and oxidation on each crystal face.

It has been evidently detected that the photoelectrons selectively migrated toward (110) facets while photo-induced holes tended to (001) facets. Furthermore, more $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals would be generated on (001) face, and more $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ radicals might be formed on (110) facets [72]. Besides the contribution from the enhance dissociative adsorption mediated by (001) facets, separation of photoexcited hole/electron pairs is also promoted by these (001) facets. First, the surface defects (e.g., oxygen vacancy) play an important role in mediating the interfacial electron transfer and thus photocatalytic activity. High-energy (001) facets are typically characterized by high densities of under-coordinated Ti atoms and very large Ti–O–Ti bond angles, giving rise to abundant oxygen deficiency [71]. Therefore, it is not surprising that with increasing the percentage of (001) facets (from nanoparticles (ca. 10%) to nanosheets (ca. 70%)), the photocatalytic activity first rapidly increases. However, when the percentage of (001) facets exposed is higher than 70%, the photocatalytic activity markedly decreases [54]. This is because the lower percentage of (110) facet is not beneficial for the transfer and separation of photogenerated electrons and holes and their synergistic effect on photoactivity. Therefore, it is not difficult to understand that the relative percentage of the exposed (001) and (110) facets is a very important parameter for the effective

separation of photogenerated electrons and holes and has a significant influence on the photocatalytic activity [52].

Murakami et al. photodeposited Pt and PbO_2 on anatase TiO_2 to determine the sites on which reduction or oxidation predominantly proceeds [40]. The color of TiO_2 powders after UV irradiation in the presence of H_2PtCl_6 and $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ aqueous solution changed to gray and brown, respectively, suggesting that Pt and PbO_2 were deposited on the TiO_2 surface. Pt particles (from the photoreduction of Pt^{4+}) of a few nanometers in size were mainly observed on the (101) face of decahedral anatase, while PbO_2 (from the photooxidation of Pb^{2+}) particles of ca. 10 nm in size were mainly deposited on the (001) face of decahedral anatase. These results are in good agreement with results of a previous study reported by Ohno et al. showing that oxidation and reduction predominantly proceed on (001) and (101) faces of decahedral anatase, respectively (Fig. 4b and d) and on the (011) face and on the (110) face of rutile nanoparticles (Fig. 4c and e) [35].

Decahedral TiO_2 with small $d_{(001)}$ (Fig. 4a) has a larger surface area of oxidation sites and smaller surface area of reduction sites, while decahedral TiO_2 with large $d_{(001)}$ (Fig. 5b) has a smaller surface area of oxidation sites and larger surface area of reduction sites. Thus, a trade-off relation exists between surface area of oxidation and reduction sites [40].

However, the synthesized shape-controlled anatase TiO_2 prepared by Murakami et al. had a primary particle size of ca. 25 nm, which is thought to be insufficient for separation of redox sites. Thus, an increase in the particle size of a shape-controlled nanocrystal will possibly enhance photocatalytic activity as a result of more effective separation of redox sites (see Fig. 5) [38].

Murakami et al. have also reported that shape-controlled rutile rods and nanowires photocatalytic activity depended on their surface structure, which could be controlled by using shape-control reagents and chemical etching [72]. These rutile rods predominantly have (110) and (111) exposed crystal faces, which were respectively attributed to reduction and oxidation sites (see Fig. 6). The rutile rods had aspect ratios of over five due to preferential growth along the (001) direction, indicating that they had a large (110) surface area and a small (111) surface area. A surface structure with a larger surface area of reduction sites than oxidation sites may be desirable for pristine rutile TiO_2 because the bottleneck reaction for conventional organic decomposition under aerated conditions is presumably oxygen reduction rather than oxidation because of the conduction and valence band potentials of rutile TiO_2 . This tendency is possibly more pronounced for rutile than anatase since the conduction band of rutile is less negative than that of anatase. One plausible reason for relatively high photocatalytic activity of the rutile may be because multielectron reduction of oxygen occurs as a result of separation of redox sites which was induced by specific exposed crystal faces. Therefore, it should be possible to further enhance photocatalytic reactions by optimizing the aspect ratio of the rods. The results indicate that the oxidation site and the reduction site on the rutile particles are on the (011) face and on the (110) face, respectively.

It was well documented that surface fluorination can enhance the photocatalytic activity of TiO_2 due to the formation of free hydroxyl radicals, which are more mobile than those generated on pure TiO_2 under UV irradiation [50,73]. Zheng et al. reported on the rapid synthesis of anatase TiO_2 nanocrystals with a continuously tunable percentage of reactive (001) facets via a microwave enhanced thermal [74]. To study the effect of surface fluoride ions on the photoactivity of TiO_2 nanosheets with exposed (001) facets, the fluorinated surface of TiO_2 nanosheets was cleaned by washing with NaOH diluted solution. It has been reported that the adsorbed fluoride ions on the surface of TiO_2 can be easily removed by alkaline washing in a NaOH solution without altering the crystal structure and morphology [54]. This is due to the fact that

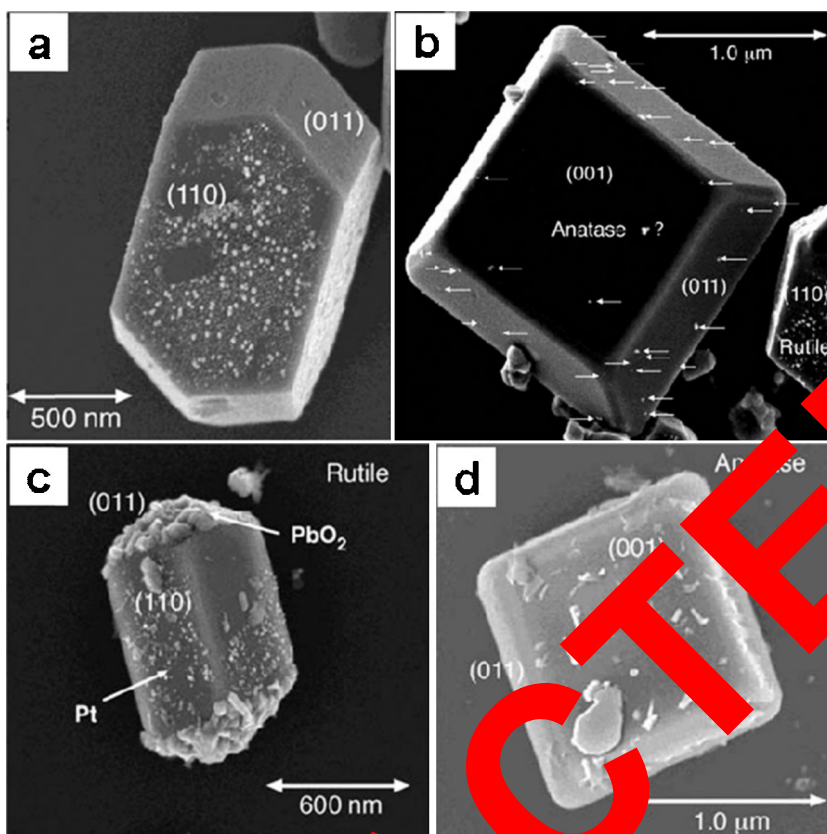


Fig. 4. SEM images of a rutile particle (a) and an anatase particle (b) loaded with Pt nanoparticles deposited via UV-irradiation in a solution of 1.0 mM H_2PtCl_6 . SEM images of a rutile particle (c) and an anatase particle (d) modified by PbO_2 deposits via UV-irradiation of the Pt-TiO₂ powder in a solution of 0.1 M $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$. These results showing that oxidation and reduction predominantly proceed on (001) and (101) faces of anatase TiO₂, respectively (b and d) and on the (011) face and on the (110) face of rutile nanoparticles (a and c). Reprinted from ref. [35].

F^- on the surface of TiO₂ nanosheets is removed by a similar ligand exchange reaction between OH^- in the NaOH solution and F^- on TiO₂. Zheng et al. observed that with increase in the percentage of exposed (001) facets, the positive effect of fluoride ion on the photocatalytic activity of high-energy TiO₂ nanocrystals becomes more obvious [74]. The positive effect of fluoride ion was attributed to the formation of free hydroxyl radicals [55], while the negative effect of fluoride ion was ascribed to the hindrance of adsorption

of the dye (used in photocatalytic process) due to the competitive adsorption between dye and fluoride ions [74].

Though the detailed mechanism of the face-selective electron and hole separation is still in its infant stage, the selective photocatalysis on anatase TiO₂ crystals with specific exposed crystal faces opens a pathway to a deeper understanding of various photocatalysis processes. The proposed reason for different facets as oxidation and reduction sites is that surface energy levels (namely, surface electronic structures) of the conduction bands and valence bands of facets are different so that photoexcited electrons and

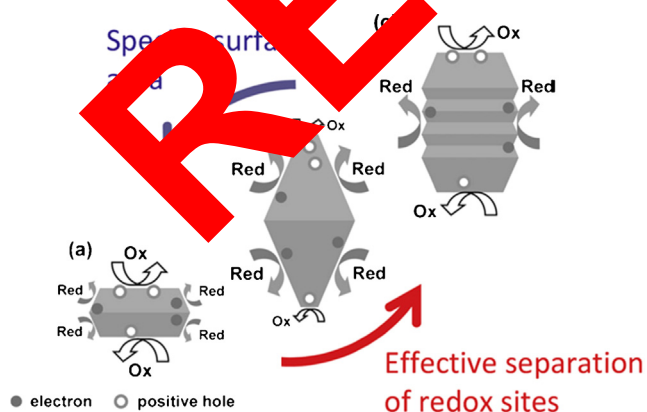


Fig. 5. Schematic images of spatial separation of redox sites on anatase TiO₂ particle with specific exposed crystal face based on Murakami et al. [38,40]: (a) decahedral particle with a larger surface area of oxidation sites and smaller surface area of reduction sites; (b) decahedral particle with a smaller surface area of oxidation sites and larger surface area of reduction sites; and (c) stacked-structured particle with larger surface area of both oxidation and reduction sites.

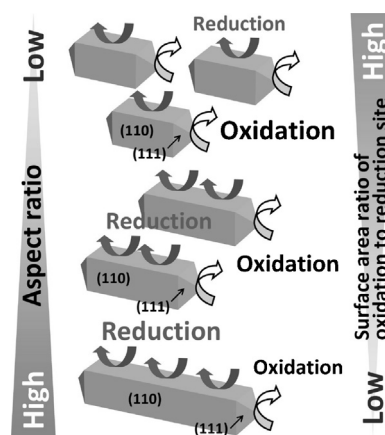


Fig. 6. Dependence of aspect ratio of shape-controlled rutile rods on surface area ratio of oxidation to reduction sites, which possibly affects the photocatalytic properties. Reprinted from ref. [72].

holes can be driven to different facets, leading to the separation of electrons and holes.

4. Preparation, characterization and photocatalytic activity of decahedral anatase titania particles

The surface stability and photoreactivity of inorganic single crystals have long been thought to be dominated by their surface chemistry, whose effect on the equilibrium morphology is critical for the synthesis of single crystals with high photoreactivity. For anatase TiO_2 , both theoretical and experimental studies found that the minority (001) facets in the equilibrium state are especially reactive.

An important breakthrough in preparation of anatase TiO_2 sheets with exposed (001) facets was achieved by Yang et al. [71]. They reported the synthesis of anatase TiO_2 single crystals with 47% of exposed (001) facets using hydrofluoric acid as a shape controlling agent. To further explore the effects of various adsorbate atoms, Yang et al. carried out a systematic investigation of 12 non-metallic atoms X (where X can represent H, B, C, N, O, F, Si, P, S, Cl, Br or I) based on first-principle calculations. Fig. 7a–d illustrates the models of clean and X-terminated (001) and (101) surfaces and the calculated surface energy values for different adsorbates are shown in Fig. 7e. Yang et al. observed that: among the 12 X-terminated surfaces and the clean surfaces, termination with F atoms not only yields the lowest value of γ for both the (001) and (101) surfaces, but also results in (001) surfaces that are more stable than (101) surfaces. These results indicate that it might be possible to achieve anatase TiO_2 single crystals with a high percentage of anatase (001) facets if their surfaces are surrounded by F atoms [71].

To verify these theoretical predictions, Yang et al. obtained truncated anatase bipyramids. They used titanium tetrafluoride (TiF_4) aqueous solution and hydrofluoric acid as the anatase single crystals' precursor and crystallographic controlling agent, respectively, to prepare anatase TiO_2 single crystals [71]. On the basis of the symmetries of anatase TiO_2 , the two flat, square surfaces must be (001) facets and the eight isosceles trapezoidal surfaces must be (101) facets of the anatase TiO_2 single crystals. The yield of anatase TiO_2 single crystals is around 90%, even though some aggregates and/or irregular particles were occasionally observed [71].

Moreover, Yang et al. observed that the crystal facet control was observed in the absence of hydrofluoric acid, and only hollow spherical polycrystalline anatase particles were formed. Hydrofluoric acid is believed to have two roles here: to retard hydrolysis of the titanium precursor and to reduce surface energy to promote the isotropic growth along the (010) and (100) axes.

To investigate the photoreactivity of (001) facets experimentally, TiO_2 single crystals with dominant (001) facets should be obtained since the influence of contributions of (101) facets.

To solve this fundamental issue, Yang et al. reported a new solvothermal method using 2-propanol as a synergistic capping agent and reaction medium together with HF to synthesize high-quality anatase TiO_2 single-crystal nanosheets (SCNSs) with 64% of the (001) facets (experimental conditions see in Table 1) [75]. Diffraction pattern indicated that the sample is in form of a pure anatase. From the symmetries of the well-faceted crystal structure of the SCNSs, the two flat square surfaces were identified as (001) facets while the other eight isosceles trapezoidal surfaces were (101) facets. The average size of the anatase TiO_2 SCNSs was 1.09 μm with a thickness of 260 nm, and the percentage of (001) facets is 64% on average [75]. Chemical compositions of anatase TiO_2 SCNSs were analyzed with X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy. The XPS spectrum of F 1s core electrons shows that the binding energy (BE) is 684.5 eV, which is a typical value for the fluorinated TiO_2 system such as $\equiv\text{Ti}-\text{F}$ species on the TiO_2 crystal surface. The

C 1s spectrum shows a component at a BE of 286.4 eV, which may result from surface oxidation of the aliphatic chains and adsorbed isopropoxide species. The C 1s peak at 284.7 eV can be assigned as aliphatic hydrocarbon, and the smaller peak at BE of 288.7 eV is due to the presence of carboxylate impurities [75].

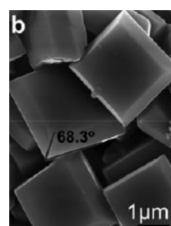
The efficiency for heterogeneous photocatalytic reaction of anatase TiO_2 SCNSs synthesized with a reaction time of 22 h was monitored by measuring the formation of active hydroxyl radicals ($\bullet\text{OH}$) upon irradiation. Significant fluorescence spectra associated with 2-hydroxyterephthalic acid (TAOH) were generated upon irradiation within 220–770 nm. The linear relationship between fluorescence intensity and irradiation time confirms the stability of anatase TiO_2 SCNSs. Yang et al. examined the stability of forming $\bullet\text{OH}$ per unit surface area of anatase TiO_2 SCNSs (P25). Concentration of $\bullet\text{OH}$ generated from SCNSs with clean surfaces is more than 5 times higher than that of P25. The results indicated enhanced photoreactivity of the anatase TiO_2 SCNSs with a large percentage of (001) facets, which can be attributed to the high density of unsaturated fold lines as well as their unique electronic structure [75].

Based on Yang et al. study, Ahono et al. obtained single-crystalline anatase particles for a gas-phase reaction with relatively high yield of decahedral particles and recognized that photocatalytic efficiency depends on surface area, if the reaction rate is expressed by first-order kinetics with respect to the amount of surface-adsorbed reactants and the amount increases with an increase in surface area [60]. TiO_2 crystallites were fabricated from titanium(IV) chloride by a gas-phase reaction process with rapid heating (see Table 1). The TiO_2 particles generated by thermal oxidation of Ti were collected at the downstream by a filter cup made of glass fibers. Uniform and rapid heating at a high temperature would enable homogeneous nucleation and subsequent growth into well faceted crystals with few defects. The low concentration of TiCl_4 and the narrow heating zone would prevent formation of large particles and polycrystalline aggregates with grain boundaries [60].

The powder X-ray diffraction pattern indicated that there are anatase crystallites and a small amount of contamination of rutile crystallites. Ahono et al. also reported that gas-phase crystallization of titanium(IV) tetra-2-propoxide at 1200 °C involves formation of minor rutile crystallites in addition to single-crystalline anatase particles with (101) and (001) facets [76]. Photocatalytic activity of the samples was evaluated by two photocatalytic reactions in aqueous solutions: (a) hydrogen evolution from an aqueous methanol (MeOH) solution containing precursors for *in situ* photodeposition of Pt, and (b) oxidative decomposition of acetic acid (AcOH) and MeOH in air. Using H_2PtCl_6 as a Pt precursor, it was observed that the amount of H_2 increased linearly with irradiation time and the rate of H_2 evolution was higher in the presence of decahedral single-crystalline particles than that by P25. When $(\text{Pt}(\text{NH}_3)_4)\text{Cl}_2$ was used as a Pt precursor instead of H_2PtCl_6 , the rate of H_2 evolution was decreased and an induction period of ca. 30 min was observed for both types of TiO_2 [76]. Ohno et al. reported that Pt particles were preferably deposited on micrometer-sized decahedral anatase particles in the order of (101) > (001) > (112) in photocatalytic reduction of H_2PtCl_6 using 2-propanol as an electron donor [35,55]. Amano et al. also observed that Pt particles were deposited both on (101) and (001) facets. For oxidative decomposition of acetic acid in an aerated aqueous suspension in the presence of single-crystalline anatase particles, the amount of CO_2 linearly increased with irradiation time and the decahedral single-crystalline particles exhibited a rate of CO_2 liberation as high as that of P25. In the case of methanol decomposition, the amount of CO_2 liberation over single-crystalline anatase particles was much larger than that of P25. The difference between the photocatalytic activity of DSC particles and

Table 1Summary of SEM/TEM images, particle size, synthesis conditions and photocatalytic activity of anatase TiO₂ crystals with exposed crystal facets.

| SEM/TEM image | Particle/crystal size | TiO ₂ precursor | Synthesis parameters | Model compound and its initial concentration | Experimental conditions | Photocatalytic activity | Ref |
|---|--------------------------------------|--|---|--|--|--|------|
|  | Size: 1.09 μm, Thickness: 260 nm | TiF ₄ | Precursor: 14.5 ml (2.76 mM) TiF ₄ , Morphology controlling agent: 0.5 ml HF, 10% w/w Procedure: hydrothermal process, 180 °C, 5.5–44 h Calcination: 600 °C, 1.5 h | Terephthalic acid (3 mM) | TiO ₂ photocatalyst was suspended in 40 ml aqueous solution containing 0.01 M NaOH and 0.01 M terephthalic acid Irradiation source: 300 W Xe lamp (λ = 320 nm) | Fluorescence signal intensity of the 2-hydroxy terephthalic acid was about: 45 a.u. (5 times more active than P25) | [75] |
|  | Size: 50–250 nm | TiCl ₄ | Precursor: TiCl ₄ vapor generated by bubbling argon (200 ml min ⁻¹) into TiCl ₄ solution at 358 K (1200 ml min ⁻¹) O ₂ (1200 ml min ⁻¹) Procedure: CVD, 15 min | (a) Hydrogen evolution (b) Hydrogen evolution (c) Hydrogen evolution (d) Hydrogen evolution (e) Hydrogen evolution (f) Hydrogen evolution (g) Hydrogen evolution (h) Hydrogen evolution (i) Hydrogen evolution (j) Hydrogen evolution (k) Hydrogen evolution (l) Hydrogen evolution (m) Hydrogen evolution (n) Hydrogen evolution (o) Hydrogen evolution (p) Hydrogen evolution (q) Hydrogen evolution (r) Hydrogen evolution (s) Hydrogen evolution (t) Hydrogen evolution (u) Hydrogen evolution (v) Hydrogen evolution (w) Hydrogen evolution (x) Hydrogen evolution (y) Hydrogen evolution (z) Hydrogen evolution | 50 mg of TiO ₂ and 2 wt% of H ₂ PtCl ₆ (for in situ photodeposition of Pt) Irradiation source: 400 W high-pressure mercury lamp | H ₂ evolution: showing a higher rate than P25 TiO ₂ , in particular in the presence of [Pt(NH ₃) ₄]Cl ₂ under 400 W high-pressure mercury lamp; Photodecomposition capability: as high as that of P25 for decomposing acetic acid, much higher than P25 for decomposing methanol. | [60] |
|  | Size: 21.5 nm, Thickness: 12.7 nm | Ti(OC ₄ H ₉) ₄ | Precursor: 50 g Ti(OC ₄ H ₉) ₄ , Morphology controlling agent: 2 ml of HF Procedure: hydrothermal process, 200 °C for 24 h. Drying: 80 °C, 10 h | Coumarin (0.5 mmol dm ⁻³) | Irradiation source: UV irradiation (λ = 332 nm) | The photocatalytic activity of high-energy anatase TiO ₂ nanocrystals increases with increasing the amount of HF solution due to the exposed high-energy {001} facets and surface fluorination. | [53] |
|  | – | Ti(OC ₄ H ₉) ₄ | Precursor: 50 g Ti(OC ₄ H ₉) ₄ , Morphology controlling agent: 8.0 ml HF, 40 wt% Procedure: hydrothermal process, 200 °C, 24 h Drying: 80 °C, 10 h Calcination: 300–1250 °C | Acetone (300 ppm) | Dishes coated with TiO ₂ powders (0.3 g of photocatalyst) were placed in photoreactor (15 dm ³) Irradiation source: 15 W, 365 nm UV lamp | With increasing the calcination temperature to 600 °C, the photocatalytic activity of TiO ₂ decreases. The photocatalytic activity of TiO ₂ begins to increase after calcined at 700 °C (4.79 × 10 ⁻³ min ⁻¹ for T700) | [51] |



Size: 1.1–3.1 μm
thickness:
1.6–1.8 μm

$\text{TiOSO}_4 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$

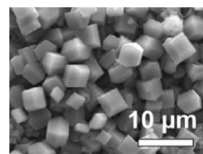
Precursor: 64, 32, 32 mg
 $\text{TiOSO}_4 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$
Morphology controlling agent:
120, 80, 40 mM HF
Procedure: hydrothermal
process, 180 °C, 2–12 h.
Drying: 80 °C, 12 h
Pt loading: impregnation
method, Pt precursor:
 $\text{H}_2\text{PtCl}_6 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$, (1 mg Pt ml⁻¹ Pt)

1. terephthalic acid
(3 mM)
methanol (10 vol)%

1. 5 mg of photocatalyst were
suspended in 80 ml aqueous
solution containing 0.01 M
2-hydroxy terephthalic
acid, Irradiation source: 300 W
Xe lamp ($\lambda = 320\text{ nm}$)
2. 100 mg of the TiO_2
(deposited with 1 wt%
 $\text{H}_2\text{PtCl}_6 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$) powder were
dispersed in 300 ml aqueous
solution containing methanol

Fluorescence signal intensity of
the 2-hydroxy terephthalic
acid was about: 25–65 a.u. H_2
evolution: about
15–40 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$

[39]



Size: 2.4–13.6 μm

Titanium plates
(2 cm × 2 cm × 0.2 cm,
obtained from
sheet of
commercial pure
titanium TA2 (with
the purity of 99.95%))

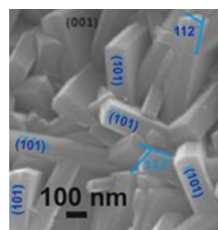
Precursor: titanium plate
Morphology controlling agent:
0.80% H_2O , 0.5 mass%
Procedure: hydrothermal
process, 180 °C, 2–12 h.
Drying: 80 °C, 12 h

Rhodamine B
(0.005 mM)

Irradiation source: 20 W UV
lamp ($\lambda = 365\text{ nm}$)
Illumination time: 120 min

The reaction rate constant: 5.5,
4.8 and $6.6 \times 10^{-3}\text{ min}^{-1}$
respectively, for the three
immobilized anatase layers
derived by the hydrothermal
reactions for 3, 12 and 24 h.

[65]



Particle size:
600 nm Thickness:
130 nm

$\text{Ti(OC}_4\text{H}_9)_4 \cdot$
 $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{TiF}_6$

Precursor: 1 ml $\text{Ti(OC}_4\text{H}_9)_4$,
0.25 g $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{TiF}_6$
Procedure: hydrothermal
process, at 150–180 °C for 24 h
Drying: 80 °C, 12 h
Calcination: 600 °C for 2 h

Terephthalic acid
($5 \times 10^{-4}\text{ mol/dm}^3$)

300 W high pressure xenon
lamp UV light ($\lambda = 365\text{ nm}$)

101/001–1 possessed about 8
and 4 times higher
photocatalytic oxidation and
reduction activity respectively,
in comparison to 010/001–1

[79]

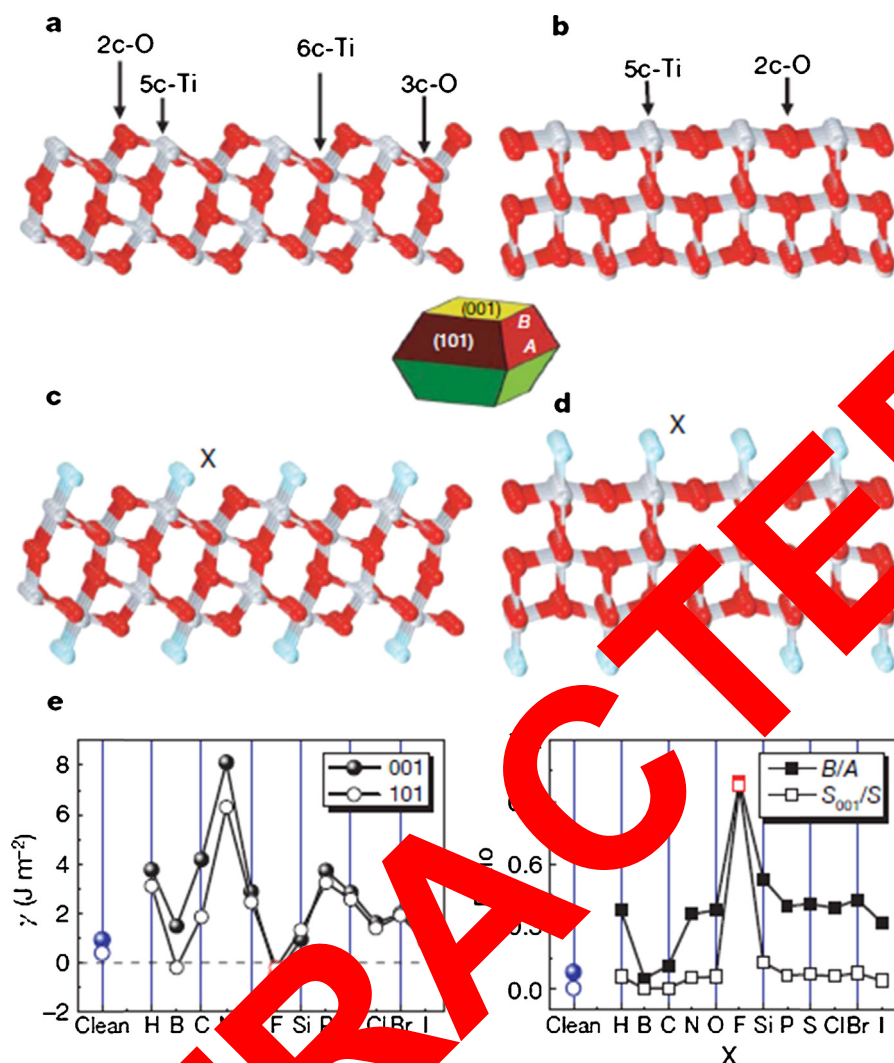


Fig. 7. Slab models and calculated surface energy of anatase TiO₂ (001) and (101) surfaces. The optimised ratios of B/A and percentage of {001} facets (S₀₀₁/S), where S and S₀₀₁ are respectively the total surface area and that contributed by the {001} facets, are also shown. (a, b) Unrelaxed, clean (001) and (101) surfaces. Ti and O atoms are represented by grey and red spheres, respectively. (c, d) Unrelaxed (001) and (101) surfaces surrounded by adsorbate X atoms. (e, f) Calculated energies of the (001) and (101) surfaces surrounded by X atoms. In e and f, clean-surface results (denoted by blue spheres and circles) are used for reference. As indicated in the inset diagram, two independent parameters A and B denote lengths of the side of the bipyramid and the side of the square {001} 'truncation' facets, respectively. The ratio of high-energy {001} facets to total surface area may therefore be described by the value of S₀₀₁/S or B/A (where 0 ≤ B/A ≤ 1). Reprinted from ref. [71].

that of P25 seen in significant methanol decomposition rather than acetic acid decomposition. Ohno et al. noted that white P25 particles turned blue immediately after commencement of photoirradiation due to the photocatalytic methanol oxidation, which was not observed for defect-free single-crystalline particles. The blue color is attributable to the formation of reduced species of Ti⁴⁺ (Ti³⁺) and indicates that electrons are accumulated in P25 particles even in the presence of molecular oxygen as an electron acceptor. Efficient electron transfer to oxygen at the surface of DSC particles may account for their better or comparable photocatalytic activity [76].

Murakami et al. [40] and Ohno et al. [35] showed that different surface energy levels of the conduction and valence bands are expected for different crystal facets of TiO₂ because of the atomic arrangements characteristic of these facets. The difference in the energy levels drives the electrons and holes to different crystal faces, leading to separation of electrons and holes, which is very important to the enhancement of the photocatalytic activity. Therefore, it is likely to optimize the photocatalytic activity of anatase TiO₂ by tailoring the exposed high-energy facets.

Wang et al. obtained anatase TiO₂ nanocrystals with exposed high-energy (001) facets using HF as morphology-controlling agent and investigated the relationship between photocatalytic activity and the percentage of exposed (001) facets of high-energy anatase TiO₂ nanocrystals (see Table 1) [53]. Physical properties related to the volume of HF added into reaction environment during synthesis and resulted percentage of (001) facets are shown in Table 2. Based on XRD analysis they observed that broad peak at $2\theta = 25.3^\circ$, corresponding to the (101) plane diffraction of anatase TiO₂ [53]. With increasing amount of HF to 2 and 4 ml, the peak intensities of anatase increase, indicating an enhancement of crystallization. The presence of fluoride ions at low pH, accelerates TiO₂ crystallization and growth due to rapid *in situ* dissolution–recrystallization processes, which reduces the numbers of defects and impurities in the TiO₂ lattice. However, with further increase in the amount of HF from 8 to 16 ml, the relative crystallinity of anatase TiO₂ decreases, due to the strong affinity of fluoride to titanium, inhibiting the extensive Ti–O–Ti bridging and crystal growth [53].

Table 2

Physical properties of the photocatalysts with exposed (001) facets obtained by Wang et al. using hydrothermal synthesis. The resulted sample was denoted as HFx, where x represents the volumes of HF added into the mixed solution. Reprinted from ref. [53].

| Photocatalyst | Materials | | | Characterization results | | | |
|---------------|--|---------|-----------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------|
| | Ti(OC ₄ H ₉) ₄ (g) | HF (ml) | H ₂ O (ml) | Percentage of {001} facets | S _{BET} (m ² /g) | Pore volume (cm ³ /g) | Average pore size (nm) |
| HF0 | 50 | 0 | 8 | 6 | 138 | 0.31 | 8.8 |
| HF2 | | 2 | 6 | 41 | 82 | 0.26 | 10.0 |
| HF4 | | 4 | 4 | 63 | 74 | 0.23 | 11.9 |
| HF8 | | 8 | 0 | 88 | 63 | 0.43 | 24.1 |
| HF12 | | 12 | 0 | 93 | 45 | 0.25 | 19.2 |
| HF16 | | 16 | 0 | 96 | 36 | 0.14 | 15.0 |
| HF20 | | 20 | 0 | - | 9.3 | 0.05 | 14.5 |

Wang et al. observed also relationship between the average crystalline sizes of the photocatalysts along (001) and (100) direction and the amount of HF solution used during the synthesis. It can be seen that the crystalline sizes along (100) direction steadily increase with increasing the amount of HF, but the crystalline sizes along (001) direction increase first and then decrease, which further confirms the preferential growth of high-energy anatase TiO₂ nanocrystals along *a*-axis in the presence of the HF (see Fig. 8). It can be seen that the presence of fluoride facilitates the exposure of high-energy (001) facets of anatase TiO₂, which enhances the growth of anatase TiO₂ nanocrystals along the *a*-axis while restricts the growth along the *c*-axis [53]. The XPS analysis showed that peak located at 684 eV and attributed to the presence of F 1s is found only in samples prepared by using HF during synthesis. The F 1s binding energy peak originates from surface fluoride ($\equiv\text{Ti-F}$) formed by ligand exchange between F⁻ and surface hydroxyl groups [53]. The photocatalytic activity of obtained samples was evaluated by a photoluminescence technique using coumarin as a probe molecule. They found, that the activity of the high-energy anatase nanocrystals is positively related to the percentage of exposed (001) facets. When the amount of HF is more than 12 ml, the photocatalytic activity of anatase TiO₂ nanosheets is high than that of P25. However, the photocatalytic activity of the high-energy anatase TiO₂ nanocrystals is ascribed to the synergetic effect of exposed high-energy (001) facets and surface fluorination. On the other hand, the use of high concentrated HF (20 ml) results in the formation of cubic TiOF₂, which shows very poor photocatalytic activity [53].

The thermal stability and effect of calcination temperature on microstructures and photocatalytic activity of anatase

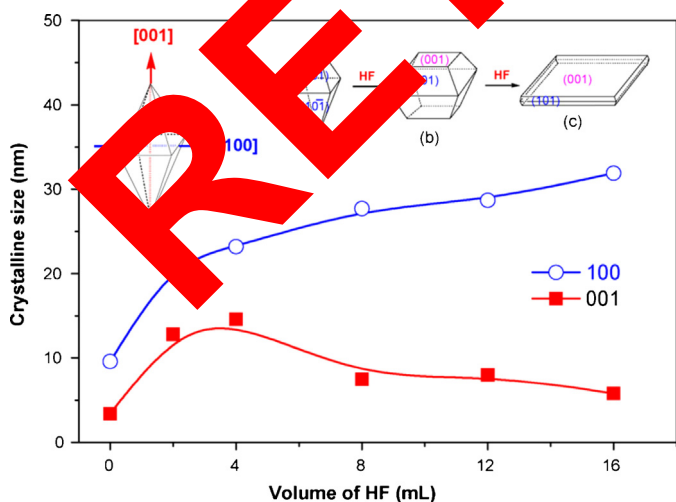


Fig. 8. Dependence of average crystalline sizes of the photocatalysts along (001) and (100) direction on the amount of HF solution, indicating that the photocatalyst has the preferential growth along *a*-axis, whilst the growth along *c*-axis is restrained (inset is the corresponding shape simulation: octahedral bipyramid (a), truncated octahedral bipyramid (b) and nanosheet (c). Reprinted from ref. [53].

TiO₂ nanosheets with dominant (001) facets fabricated by hydrothermal treatment of tetra-n-butyl titanate in hydrofluoric acid solution, were investigated by Lv et al. [51]. SEM image shown in Fig. 9a, confirmed that the anatase sample calcined at 200 °C consists of well-defined sheet shape structure showing a rectangular outline with a side length of about 100 nm. The growth of anatase TiO₂ nanocrystals and their shape evolution (from nanosheets through nanorods into nanorings), due to the sintering of the sample, could be observed in samples calcined at 800, 1100 and 1250 °C based on both SEM and XRD analysis [51].

They found that the crystalline size of the photocatalyst along (001) direction increases much faster than that of (100) direction with enhancement of calcination temperature, reflecting that anatase TiO₂ nanosheets have preferential growth along the *c*-axis during calcination treatment (Fig. 9). Moreover, it was observed that the percentage of (001) facets decreases from about 89 to 64% with calcination temperature increases from 200 to 800 °C [51]. The photocatalytic activity of the TiO₂ samples calcined at different temperature was evaluated by the photocatalytic degradation of methylene blue in air. It could be clearly observed that sample calcined at 200 °C shown better activity than P25 (see details Fig. 9B and C). It was also reported that rise of calcination temperature to 600 °C resulted in the photocatalytic activity drop. Temperature enhancement up to 700 °C led to activity increase, which is ascribed to the enhanced crystallization. However, with further increase in the calcination temperature, the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ steadily decreases due to the decrease of BET surface areas and the percentage of the exposed high-energy (001) facets. Lv et al. found that even after calcination at 1100 °C, the photoactivity of obtained sample still keeps about 60% that of P25. When calcined temperature is higher than 1200 °C, the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂ powders sharply decreases due to the severe sintering of the samples and the formation of rutile phase [51].

Pan et al. synthesized a set of anatase crystals with different percentages of (001), (101), and (010) facets by controlling the synthesis parameters (see Table 1) [39]. The truncated bipyramids (shown in Fig. 10b and c) are enclosed by eight isosceles trapezoidal (101) and two square (001) facets. Fig. 10d shows that an additional quartet column is generated at the center of a particle, so that the truncated bipyramid is separated into two parts located at the ends of the column. The shape of these particles is consistent with the predicted morphology enclosed by (001), (101), and (010) facets of anatase [39]. The percentage of different facets of anatase particles obtained by Pan et al. is given in Table 3. The photooxidation and photoreduction activities of the synthesized anatase samples were estimated by evaluating the amount of OH radicals and the rate of hydrogen evolution from the photoreduction reaction. All three samples (T001-F, T101-F, and T010-F) with fluorine-terminated surfaces show very similar abilities for generating OH radicals and their hydrogen-evolution rates are also nearly identical. After removing the surface fluorine atoms, the corresponding fluorine-free samples, showed apparently improved photooxidation and photoreduction capabilities.

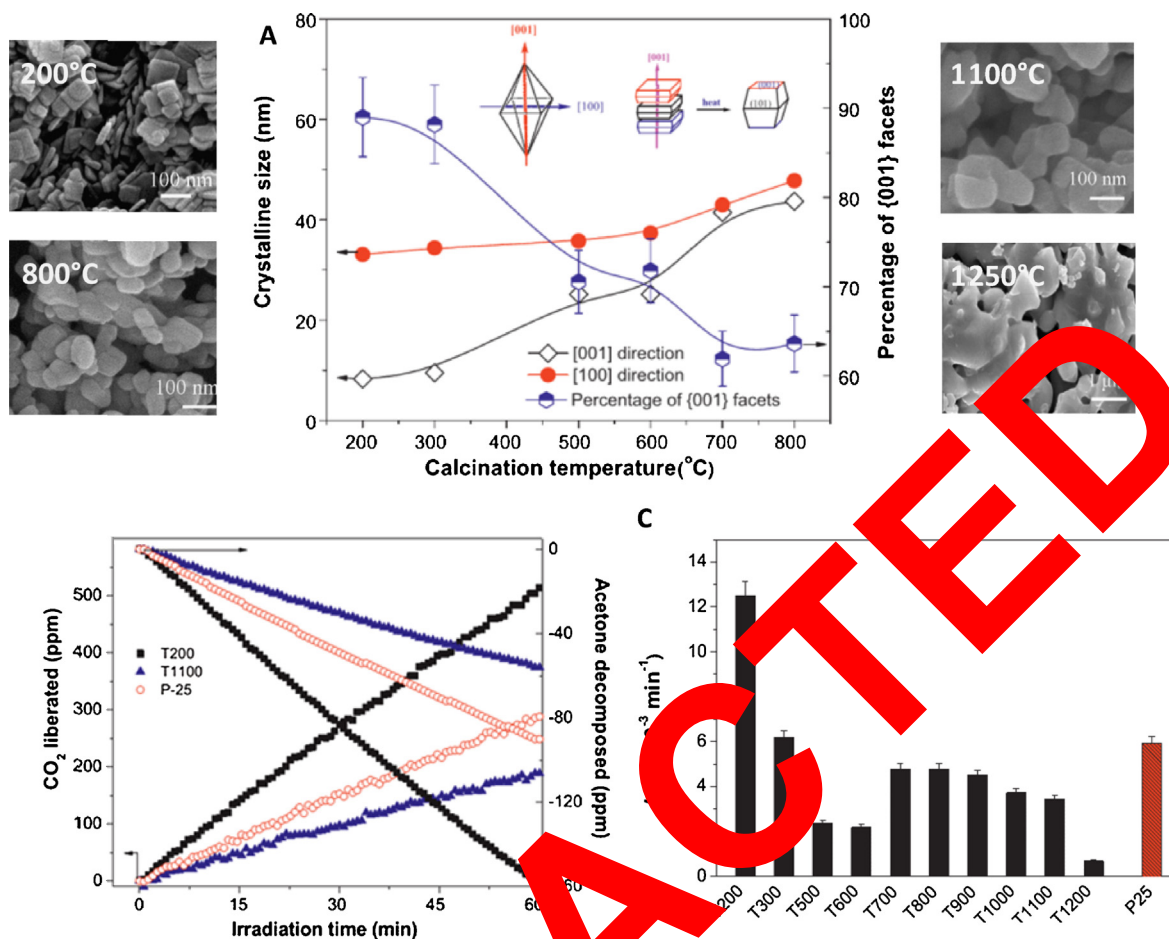


Fig. 9. The effect of calcination temperature on the microstructure and photocatalytic activity of anatase TiO₂ nanosheets, with dominant {001} facets: (A) dependence of average crystalline sizes of the photocatalysts along [001] and [100] direction on calcination temperatures, together with the percentages of {001} facets calculated according to geometric shape of Wulff construction, indicating that the photocatalyst has the preferential growth along c-axis ([001] direction) (inset is the corresponding shape simulation); (B) the dependence of the degraded acetone on the irradiation time for samples calcined at 200 and 1100 °C and P25 as reference sample, and (C) the photocatalytic activity of the samples calcined from 200 to 1200 °C (photodegradation of acetone in air). SEM images of samples calcined at (a) 200 °C, (b) 800 °C, (c) 1100 °C, and (d) 1250 °C. Reprinted from ref. [39].

Pan et al. concluded that clean {001}, {101}, and {010} facets follow the photoreactivity order of {001} < {101} < {010}. Results obtained by Pan et al. indicated that the surface fluorine termination and the percentages of different crystal facets are two determining factors in controlling the photoreactivity of anatase [39].

Based on the atomic structure model of {101}, {001}, and {010} facets, they tried to explain what is the underlying factor that reverses the predicted photoreactivity order of {101} < {001} < {010} facets, and why do {010} facets give the highest photoreactivity (Fig. 10). With 100% unsaturated Ti_{5c} atoms at the surface, {001} facets are theoretically considered more reactive than {101} with 50% Ti_{5c} atoms and 50% Ti_{6c} atoms in heterogeneous reactions. As revealed from photocatalytic tests, {001} has lower photoreactivity than {101}, contrary to the prediction, while {010}, which also has 100% Ti_{5c} atoms exposed, gives the highest

photoreactivity among the three facets. UV-Vis absorption spectra (Fig. 10f) showed that the absorption edge of T001 has a red shift of about 6 nm with respect to those of T101 and T010. Results obtained by Liu et al. [77] confirmed that the {001} facet has a smaller band gap than the {101} and T010 with dominant {101} and {010} facets nearly overlap, that is, {010} and {101} facets have very close band gaps. X-ray photoelectron valence-band (VB) spectra (Fig. 10g) reveal that VB maxima of all three TiO₂ crystals are at 1.93 eV, that is, the conduction-band (CB) minimum of T101 and T010 is raised in contrast to T001. Fig. 10h showed the resolved band structures of different crystals. The absence of reduction states and upward shift of VB maxima in measured VB spectra are attributed to the negligible amount of oxygen vacancies in TiO₂ samples. Pan et al. observed that {010} facets have both a favorable surface atomic structure and a surface electronic structure, so that the more strongly reducing electrons in the CB can be transferred via the surface Ti_{5c} atoms as active reaction sites. The efficient consumption of excited electrons in the photoreduction reactions can simultaneously promote the involvement of holes in photooxidation reactions. Such a cooperative mechanism existing on {010} facets is responsible for its having the highest photoreactivity [39].

Wu et al. reported the hydrothermal synthesis of {001}-exposed anatase single crystals through reactions of Ti plates in aqueous HF

Table 3

Average percentages of {001}, {101}, and {010} facets in T001-F, T101-F, and T010-F, calculated from the surface area of each facet from SEM images [39].

| Sample | {001} | {101} | {010} |
|--------|-------|-------|-------|
| T001-F | 49% | 60% | 0% |
| T101-F | 24% | 76% | 0% |
| T010-F | 14% | 33% | 53% |

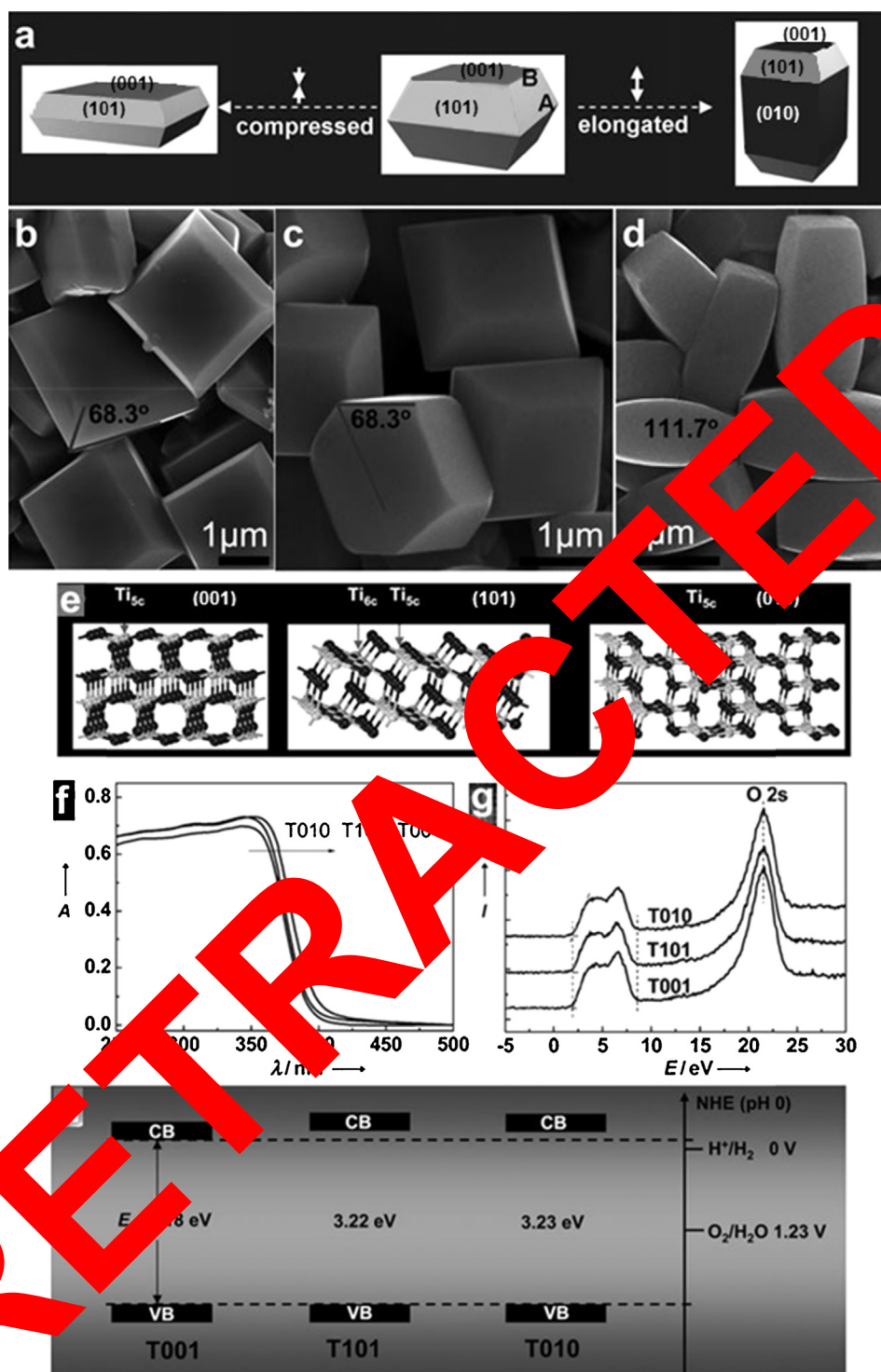


Fig. 10. Morphology and atomic structure of anatase TiO_2 crystals obtained via hydrothermal route: (a) schematic of anatase TiO_2 with different percentages of $\{101\}$, $\{001\}$, and $\{010\}$ facets; (b–d) SEM images of anatase crystals synthesized with different aqueous solutions of HF (120, 80, and 40 mM) containing different amounts of TiOSO_4 precursor (64, 32, and 32 mg) at 180°C for different times (12, 12, and 2 h). The samples shown in (b–d) are denoted T001-F, T101-F, and T010-F, where T indicates TiO_2 , 001/101/010 the dominant facet, and F surface-terminating fluorine. Surface atomic structure and electronic structure: (e) schematic of atomic structure of $\{101\}$, $\{001\}$, and $\{010\}$ faces; (f) UV/Vis absorption spectra of T001, T101, and T010; (g) valence-band XP spectra of T001, T101, and T010; and (h) determined valence-band and conduction-band edges of T001, T101, and T010. Reprinted from ref. [39].

solutions with mass concentrations of 0.15–0.80%, in an autoclave (see Table 1) [78]. Based on the analysis of surface morphologies of Ti plates after the hydrothermal treatment at 180°C for 12 h in aqueous HF solutions with various concentrations they observed that if the HF concentration was maintained at 0.10%, homogeneously dispersed multi-facet microspheres with sizes of

ca. 1–2 μm were achieved. The spheres consisted of anatase single crystals, looking like truncated bipyramids with $\{001\}$ facets exposed outside. When the HF concentration increased to 0.15% and 0.20%, highly truncated bipyramids appeared on the Ti plates except for the multi-facet microspheres. It can be seen clearly that each truncated bipyramid possesses two parallel $\{001\}$ facets and

eight (101) facets. When the HF concentration further increased to a value beyond 0.40%, most of the truncated bipyramids interlocked with each other and several defects on the (001) facet can be discerned. With increasing HF concentrations from 0.15% to 0.40%, the average size of truncated bipyramids increased almost linearly from 2.4 to 11.8 μm . Further increasing the HF concentration to 0.80% resulted in truncated bipyramids with an average size of ca. 13.6 μm . The fraction of (001) facets increased from 15% to 40% with increasing HF concentrations from 0.15% to 0.30%, which reached at 49% when 0.80% HF was used [78]. They found that photoactivity of the anatase crystals in degradation of rhodamine B in water increased with decreasing size and increasing fractions of (001) facets [78].

Anatase TiO_2 crystals with coexisting two types of facets (101)–(001) and (010)–(001) were successfully synthesized by $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{TiF}_6$ acting as titanium and fluorine sources by Ye et al. [79]. They prepared four types of anatase TiO_2 samples containing different amount of (001) facets: (a) 49%:51% of (001)/(101) facets, (b) 70%:30% of (001)/(101), (c) 48%:52% of (001)/(010) facets, and (d) 64%:36% of (001):(010) facets (see Table 1) [79]. XRD results confirmed that all samples were anatase TiO_2 with the tetragonal structure and the intensity of (010) ($\theta=25.4^\circ$) peak and 010/101 increase in the order of samples containing: 48% (001) and 52% (010) > 64% (001) and 36% (010) > 70% (001) and 30% (101) > 49% (001) and 51% (101) [79]. Ye et al. observed that sample with 49%:51% of (001)/(101) facets possessed about 8 and 4 times higher photocatalytic oxidation and reduction activity respectively, in comparison to sample containing 48%:52% of (001)/(010) facets. Sample having 70%:30% of (001)/(101) (BET surface area: 10.4 m^2/g) also displayed higher photocatalytic oxidation and reduction activity than sample 64%:36% of (001)/(010) (BET surface area: 8.6 m^2/g). It could be concluded the photocatalytic activity was repressed when (101) facets were replaced by (010) facets [79]. To explore the electron transfer paths between (001) and (010) facets, (101) and (101) facets, Ag deposition reaction was investigated. Ag particles of a few nanometers in size were mainly observed on (101) facets at 70%:30% of (001)/(101) sample. However, for 48%:52% of (001)/(010) sample, Ag nanoparticles were mainly observed on the (001) facets. This proves that the most photoinduced electron transfer to (101) facets for (101)–(001) and (001) facets for (010)–(001) samples [79]. From the CB and VB energy level analyses and Ag deposition experiment, the relative CB and VB position of obtained samples were suggested by Ye et al. (Fig. 11) [79]. For (101)–(001) samples (Fig. 11a), photoinduced charge transfer tendency can be found. Under UV light irradiation, the photoinduced electrons transfer to (101) facets and holes to (001) facets. Then, photocatalytic oxidation and reduction takes place on (001) and (101) facets, respectively (Fig. 11c). However, when (101) facets were replaced by (010) facets, the transfer scenario changed. The most efficient electron transfer to (001) facets together and do not separate anymore under UV light irradiation (Fig. 11b). The photocatalytic oxidation and reduction are supposed occurring on (001) or (010) facets synchronously (Fig. 11d). The replacement of (101) by (010) facets is thus to inhibit the photocatalytic activity of anatase TiO_2 . Photocatalytic results obtained by Ye et al. showed that the replacement of (101) (50% surface undercoordinated Ti5c atoms) by (010) (100% surface undercoordinated Ti5c atoms) facets inhibits the photocatalytic activity of anatase TiO_2 for $\cdot\text{OH}$ production. It indicated that the separation efficiency of photo-generated electron–hole is more important than the adsorption condition of H_2O for $\cdot\text{OH}$ production [79].

To find the answer how does the decahedral shape itself affect the photocatalytic activity, Ohtani et al. investigated photocatalytic activities together with physical and structural properties of 35 commercial titania powders to find the predominant property

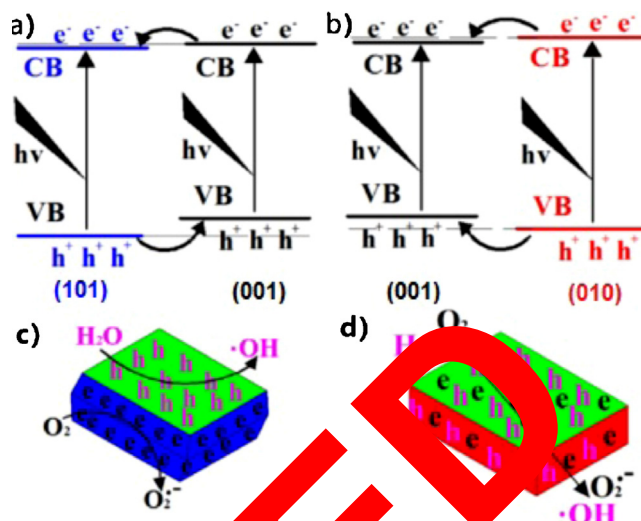


Fig. 11. Electronic band structure and charge carrier distribution: (a) electronic band structures of (101)–(001); (b) electronic band structures of (010)–(001); (c) electrons and holes distributing of (101)–(001); and (d) electrons and holes distributing of (010)–(001). Reprinted from Ref. [79].

(properly determining the activity of a given reaction system [80]). They found that standardized photocatalytic activities for five kinds of reactions were fairly well reproduced by a linear combination of five kinds of physical and structural properties of photocatalysts, i.e., specific surface area, density of crystalline defects, particle size, secondary particle size and existence of anatase and rutile phases. It was suggested that high levels of photocatalytic activity of decahedral nanoparticles could not be reproduced by the correlation equations derived in the above-mentioned multivariable analysis [80], i.e., another property, such as “shape” may affect the photocatalytic activities [81].

In general, the photocatalytic performance of TiO_2 highly depends on the shape, size and, particularly, dominant facets. Theoretical and experimental studies have suggested that anatase TiO_2 with (001) facets are highly active. Since Yang et al. reported the preparation of anatase TiO_2 with exposed (001) facets [71], much attention has been paid on the development of TiO_2 with active facets of higher percentage. Based on this method, the percentage of TiO_2 exposed (001) facets was increased to 89%, using hydrofluoric acid as the shape capping agent [49].

Until now, anatase TiO_2 single crystals with exposed (001) facets have been successfully achieved from different raw materials, such as titanium fluoride, titanium chloride, titanium tetrabutoxide, titanium tetraisopropoxide, and so. However, these materials are usually toxic, high hydrolytic reactive and expensive, making them difficult to control the reaction processes and use in large scale. Therefore, materials with properties of no-toxicity, low-cost and stability, which is the key factor for the practical application of this advanced material, are highly required for the large scale production of anatase TiO_2 single crystals with exposed (001) facets [82].

5. Effect of metal and nonmetal doping of TiO_2 with exposed facets for enhanced visible-light photocatalytic activity

It is known that the photocatalytic activity of TiO_2 is strongly dependent on its phase structures, crystallinity, and surface energy, and the average (001) surface energy of anatase TiO_2 has been demonstrated to be higher than that of (100) and (101) surface. However, anatase TiO_2 sheets can only absorb UV light with a

wavelength of no longer than 387 nm due to the large band gap of 3.2 eV. To make a better use of the solar illumination, one approach to extend the absorption band edge of TiO₂ from the ultraviolet to the visible-light region several works reported fabrication of metal and nonmetal-doped anatase TiO₂ sheets with exposed facets, but it is still challenging to incorporate dopants into anatase TiO₂ sheets with dominant facets [70,83–91]. This is because well-faceted anatase TiO₂ sheets usually have very high crystallinity, making it difficult or nearly impossible to incorporate dopants into them by mild post-treatment, and at the same time the addition of dopant precursors in the reaction medium may inevitably influence the nucleation and growth of anatase TiO₂ sheets so that no desirable TiO₂ sheets could be synthesized [86].

Fluorine-modification on the TiO₂ surface displays the promoting effect of the photocatalytic activity. Yu et al. demonstrate that the fluorine-modification enhances the selectivity in photodegradation of organic dyes due to the different adsorption sites [92]. As reported by Yang et al. the presence of fluoride ions in the hydrothermal fluid can induce the crystal growth of anatase TiO₂ toward exposed (001) facets [71]. Li et al. reported the F[−] modification on exposed (001) and (101) facets of anatase TiO₂, which exhibited different photocatalytic performances in rhodamine B and methylene orange degradation [70]. Fluorine-doped anatase TiO₂ nanosheets dominant with (001) facet exposed were synthesized via a hydrothermal route (see Table 4). As it was said before the photoelectrons selectively migrated toward (101) facets while photo-induced holes tended to (001) facets. Thus, more •OH radicals would be generated on (001) facets while more •O₂[−] radicals might be formed on (101) facets, which could sufficiently account for the higher activity of TiO₂ with dominant (001) than (101) facets in the photocatalytic degradation of rhodamine B and methylene orange. Meanwhile, it could also account for the higher activity of TiO₂ with dominant (101) than (001) facets in the photocatalytic degradation of methylene orange since the dominant (101) facets favor the formation of •O₂[−] radicals as active species for methylene orange oxidation [70]. To summarize, Li et al. stated that F[−] modification promoted the rhodamine B degradation on (001) and (101) facets. Meanwhile, F[−] modification enhanced the methylene orange degradation on (001) facet but decreased it on (101) facet. Based on the selective migration of photoinduced electrons and holes, the enhanced carrier separation by the modification of fluorine would increase •OH radicals generated from more holes, but the transfer of electrons by adsorbed fluorine would inhibit the formation of •O₂[−] radicals. Different effects of adsorbed fluorine to the formation of active species contributed to the selective photodegradation of organic dyes [70] (Table 5).

Liu et al. synthesized sulfur doped anatase TiO₂ sheets with well faceted (101) and (001) by using crystalline TiS₂ as titanium source via hydrothermal route (see Table 4) [85]. They obtained relatively uniform sheets with a particle size of ca. 1 μm. From the symmetry of anatase TiO₂, two flat and square surfaces and eight isosceles trapezoidal surfaces in the well faceted particles can be attributed to (001) and (101) facets of the anatase TiO₂ crystal [85]. The photocatalytic activity of the synthesized S-doped anatase TiO₂ sheets was estimated by detecting the generation of photocatalytic active species •OH radicals under the irradiation of UV–visible light (220–770 nm) and visible light (420–770 nm). •OH radicals react with terephthalic acid (TA) in basic solution and generate 2-hydroxyl terephthalic acid (TAOH), which emits a unique fluorescence signal with the peak at 426 nm [85]. Fluorescence spectra associated with TAOH are generated upon UV–VIS irradiation of the sulfur doped anatase TiO₂ sheets suspended in TA solution, indicating that the changed surface structure is still active in transferring photoinduced charge carriers to reactants such as surface adsorbed water and hydroxyl groups. Liu et al.

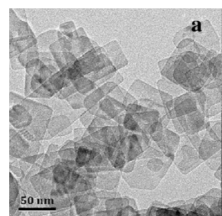
observed that the nearly linear relationship between fluorescence intensity and irradiation time confirms the stability of sulfur doped anatase TiO₂ sheets synthesized. Importantly, a certain amount of •OH radicals is still generated when only visible light was employed to excite sulfur doped anatase TiO₂ sheets, suggesting that sulfur doping can indeed realize the visible light photoactivity of anatase TiO₂ sheets with preferential (001) facets. The relatively low content of •OH radicals under visible light irradiation may be due to the large particle size and low visible light absorbance of the anatase TiO₂ sheets [85]. Based on comparison of photodegradation of rhodamine B with sulfur doped anatase TiO₂ sheets in contrast to undoped anatase TiO₂ sheets, it was concluded that under UV–visible light irradiation, sulfur doped anatase TiO₂ sheets show a superior visible light photodegradation rate of RhB to undoped anatase TiO₂ sheets [85].

Carbon self-doped TiO₂ sheets (CTS) with exposed (001) facets obtained by hydrothermal treatment of titanium carbide (TiC) in a HNO₃–HF mixed aqueous solution were reported by Yu et al. [93]. Titanium carbide was chosen as a precursor of TiO₂ and a source of C, which was self-doped in the process of anatase sheets. They observed that the presence of carbon in the reaction system strongly affected the morphology of the C-doped TiO₂ sample. Before hydrothermal treatment, pristine TiC appeared as large, smooth and compact particles. After hydrothermal treatment in HNO₃–HF mixed solution, the interfacial sheets are observed. The first-principle calculations indicate that fluorine ions can greatly reduce the surface energy of (001) facets, making them more stable than (101) facets. The average grain size of CTS is ca. 500 nm with a thickness of ca. 120 nm and percentage of ca. 58% (001) facets calculated by the previously reported method [93]. The XPS analysis showed that C in CTS exists in two forms: carbons substituting Ti atoms and interstitial carbon atoms present in TiO₂. The C-doped TiO₂ samples exhibited an enhanced absorption in the whole visible light region and a red shift in the absorption edges. The first-principle DFT calculations further confirm the red shift of the absorption edges and the narrowness of the band gap of the C-doped TiO₂ [93]. The photocatalytic studies in model reaction of methylene blue (MB) degradation showed that these sheets exhibited much higher photocatalytic activity than that of the C-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles due to the presence of exposed (001) facets [93]. From comparison of photocatalytic activities of the CTS, TNS and P25 samples Yu et al. observed that the C-doped TiO₂ sheets with exposed (001) facets exhibited much higher photocatalytic activity than the pure TiO₂ nanosheets due to better crystallinity and higher percentage of the exposed (001) facets. Based on obtained data Yu et al. summarized the self-sensitized degradation mechanism of MB on pure TiO₂ under visible light illumination. MB molecules are excited in the first step of reaction, and next, the photoexcited electrons are transferred to the conduction band of TiO₂. Subsequently, the injected electrons can be further transferred to the adsorbed O₂ on the surface of TiO₂ to form initially the superoxide radical anions, •O₂[−] next, protonation yields the HOO• radicals, which after trapping electrons combine to produce H₂O₂, and finally, •OH radicals. The produced •OH radicals are responsible for the degradation of MB molecules [93].

Zhou et al. synthesized nanometre-sized nitrogen doped anatase TiO₂ sheets with dominant (001) facets (denoted as NT-001) by solvothermal treatment of TiN in acidic NaBF₄ solution [86]. Based on SEM analysis it can be seen that the TiO₂ products are uniform in size and appear as nanosheets. The width of their top surface is ca. 170–185 nm and the thickness of TiO₂ nanosheets is ca. 25–35 nm. The percentages of (001) facets are estimated to be 70% [86]. The presence of nitrogen in samples was confirmed by XPS analysis. Two bonding states of nitrogen species are evidenced by

Table 4Summary of SEM/TEM images, particle size, synthesis conditions and photocatalytic activity of anatase doped-TiO₂ crystals with exposed crystal facets.

| SEM/TEM image | Particle/crystal or grain size | Doping moiety | TiO ₂ precursor | Synthesis parameters | Model compound and its initial concentration | Experimental conditions | Photocatalytic activity | Ref |
|---|---|---------------|----------------------------|---|---|--|--|------|
|  | Grain size: 500 nm with 120 nm thickness | C | TiC | Precursor: 1.2 g TiC, Morphology controlling agent: 60 ml of 0.35 M HF and 0.75 M HNO ₃ , Procedure: hydrothermal process, 180 °C, 16 h, Drying: 100 °C, 6 h. | 2×10^{-5} M methylene blue 5×10^{-5} M terephthalic acid | 0.1 g TiO ₂ in 100 ml of MB, Irradiation source: 350 W Xenon lamp ($\lambda = 420$ nm), 120 min 0.1 g TiO ₂ in aqueous solution of terephthalic acid and 2×10^{-3} M NaOH. | C-TiO ₂ has shown higher photocatalytic activity than P25 Fluorescence signal intensity of the 2-hydroxy terephthalic acid was highest for C-TiO ₂ nanosheets | [85] |
|  | Size: 1 μ m | S | TiS ₂ | Precursor: 10 g Ti, Morphology controlling agent: 20 ml of 50% H ₂ O ₂ , Procedure: hydrothermal process, 180 °C, 12 h, Drying: under reduced pressure, room temperature. | rhodamine B (2×10^{-5} mol dm ⁻³) terephthalic acid (3 mM) | 50 mg TiO ₂ in 100 ml of RhB, Irradiation source: 300 W xenon lamp UV–VIS (220–770 nm) and VIS (420–770 nm) for 120 min 5 mg TiO ₂ in 80 ml aqueous solution containing 0.01 M NaOH and 3 mM terephthalic acid. | Under UV light irradiation S-TiO ₂ showed slight increase in comparison with undoped TiO ₂ . Under visible light S-TiO ₂ exhibited significant increase in the photodegradation rate of RhB Fluorescence signal intensity of the 2-hydroxy terephthalic acid was more than: 8000 a.u. under UV light and 600 a.u. under Vis light. | [86] |
|  | Crystal size: 170–500 nm; thickness: 20–50 nm | TiN | TiO ₂ | TiO ₂ and dopant precursors: TiN, Morphology controlling agent: NaBF ₄ , Procedure: solvothermal treatment, Calcination: 500 °C, 2 h. | Methylene blue | Visible light irradiation | Decolorization ratios of MB are 35% and 85% for N-P25 and the annealed NT-001, respectively. | [87] |



Size: 15 nm

F

 $\text{Ti}(\text{OC}_4\text{H}_9)_4$

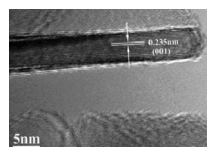
Precursor: $\text{Ti}(\text{OC}_4\text{H}_9)_4$,
Dopant precursor: 30 ml 2%
HF Morphology controlling
agent: 3 ml 40 wt% HF,
Procedure: hydrothermal
process, 180 °C, 24 h

Rhodamine B or
methyl orange
($2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$)

100 ml quartz reactor
containing 0.02 g of
photocatalyst and 50 ml
of RhB or MO,
Irradiation source: 8 W
UV-lamps ($\lambda = 365 \text{ nm}$).

F-modified TiO_2 with
exposed {001} facet has
shown higher
photocatalytic activity in
comparison with pure TiO_2
for RhB and lower activity
in the case of MO

[70]

Crystal size:
22.9 nm

N/S

 $\text{Ti}(\text{OC}_4\text{H}_9)_4$

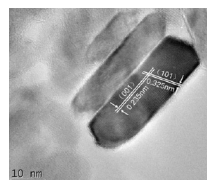
Precursors: $\text{Ti}(\text{OC}_4\text{H}_9)_4$,
Dopant precursor:
thiourea, Morphology
controlling agent: 3 ml
40 wt% HF Procedure:
hydrothermal process,
180 °C, 24 h, cooling
reduced pressure, 80 °C,
8 h, Calcination: 400 °C, 2 h.

4-chlorophenol
($1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$)

Irradiation source: 350 W
xenon lamp, UV light
($\lambda \leq 400 \text{ nm}$)

Photocatalytic activity was
3 times higher than pure
 TiO_2 and more than 2 times
in comparison with P25.

[88]

Nanosized
crystallite

N/S

 TiF_4

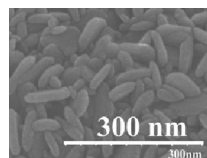
Precursor: thiourea,
Solvent: 400 ml
Ethanol, Procedure:
sol-gel process,
180 °C, 24 h, Calcination:
300, 400, 500 °C, 2 h.

Methylene blue
1 mg/ml

Irradiation source: 300 W
xenon lamp, Vis light
($\lambda > 400 \text{ nm}$) Irradiation
time: 30 min

F- TiO_2 with high
percentage of {001} facets
exhibited faster
degradation effect on MB
than pure TiO_2 prepared by
the same condition and
commercial P25.

[89]



Size: 80 nm

N

 TiF_4

Precursor: TiN Morphology
controlling agent:
 HNO_3 -HF solution

Methanol

No data

Linear relationship
between fluorescence
intensity and irradiation
time indicates that the
amount of $\bullet\text{OH}$ generated
on the TiO_2 surface is
proportional to the
irradiation time during the
photocatalytic process

[95]

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Table 4 (Continued)

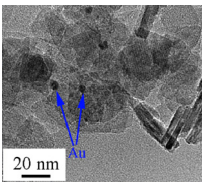
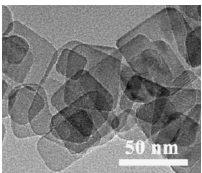
| SEM/TEM image | Particle/crystal or grain size | Doping moiety | TiO ₂ precursor | Synthesis parameters | Model compound and its initial concentration | Experimental conditions | Photocatalytic activity | Ref |
|---|--------------------------------|---------------|--|---|---|--|---|-------|
|  | Crystal size: 15.9 nm | Au | Ti(OC ₄ H ₉) ₄ | Precursor: Ti(OC ₄ H ₉) ₄ , Morphology controlling agent: 3 ml 47 wt% HF, Procedure: hydrothermal process, 180 °C, 24 h, Drying: 80 °C, 24 h, Precursor: H ₂ AuCl ₄ | Rhodamine B 2 × 10 ^{−5} M | 80 mg TiO ₂ in 80 ml RhB, Irradiation source: 300 W xenon lamp with cut-off filter (420 nm). | Au-TiO ₂ has shown higher photocatalytic activity ($k = 3 \text{ h}^{-1}$) than pure TiO ₂ with exposed {001} facet ($k = 0.54 \text{ h}^{-1}$). | [100] |
|  | Crystalline size: 15 nm | Pt | Ti(OC ₄ H ₉) ₄ | Precursors: Ti(OC ₄ H ₉) ₄ , Morphology controlling agent: 3 ml 47 wt% HF, Procedure: hydrothermal process, 180 °C, 24 h, Drying: 80 °C, 6 h, Pt precursor: H ₂ PtCl ₆ , impregnation method (2 wt% ratio of Pt/TiO ₂). | Ethanol Coumarin 1 × 10 ^{−3} M | 20 mg TiO ₂ in 80 ml of ethanol (20 ml) and water (60 ml), irradiation source: 350 W xenon arc lamp. 20 mg TiO ₂ in 80 ml of ethanol (20 ml) and coumarin (60 ml), UV irradiation for 1 h. | Pt-TiO ₂ nanosheets with exposed {001} facet has reached the highest photocatalytic activity 333.5 μmol h ^{−1} , higher than Pt-P25 (223.4 μmol h ^{−1}) and undoped TiO ₂ (3 μmol h ^{−1}). Pt-TiO ₂ exhibited highest fluorescence signal intensity of 7-hydroxycoumarin. | [101] |

Table 5

Physicochemical properties of the samples prepared at different experimental conditions. Reprinted from ref. [94].

| No. | Experimental conditions | Phase ^a | S _{BET} (m ² /g) | C/Ti ^b | Band gap (eV) | RC ^c |
|-----|--|--------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| CTS | TiC + HF + HNO ₃ 180 °C, 16 h | A | 12 | 0.175 | 2.80 | 2.3 |
| TNS | Ti(OBu) ₄ + HF 180 °C, 24 h | A | 86 | 0 | 3.18 | 1 |

^a A denote anatase.^b C/Ti denotes the atomic ratio of doped carbon to titanium in the C-doped TiO₂ samples.^c RC denotes the relative anatase crystallinity calculated using the {1 0 1} diffraction peak of anatase and TNS as a reference sample.

the bimodal peaks at 398.3 and 401.3 eV. The former is attributed to the incorporated nitrogen dopant in titania in the form of Ti–O–N linkages as the interstitial nitrogen, and the latter probably originates from surface adsorbed or contaminated nitrogen species. The amount of N dopant is ca. 1.02 at%. Photocatalytic activity of NT-001 and N-P25 was measured during the decolorization of MB dye under visible light. The decolorization ratios of MB are 35% and 85% for N-P25 and the annealed NT-001, respectively [86].

Nitrogen self-doped TiO₂ nanosheets (NTNs) with exposed (001) facets was also prepared by Xiang et al. by a solvothermal strategy in a HNO₃–HF ethanol solution using titanium nitride (TiN) as a precursor of TiO₂ and a source of N [94]. The transmission electron microscopy analysis confirms that this sample is composed of well-defined sheets having a rectangular shape with an average side size of about 80 nm. The UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectra of the NTNs sample and P25 showed that NTNs exhibit a greatly enhanced visible-light absorption shoulder around 400–550 nm, which is consistent with yellow color characteristic of the nitrogen doped samples [94]. Xiang et al. confirmed that the formation mechanism of nanosized anatase TiO₂ sheets with dominant (001) facets could be explained by capping of fluorine ions and alcohol in this reaction system. The first principle calculations indicate that fluorine ions can greatly reduce the surface energy of high-reactive (001) facets and thus hinder the crystal growth along the (001) axis, leading to the truncation of octahedron to nanosheets with dominant (001) facets. Moreover, the use of ethanol as reaction medium plays an important role in controlling the synthesis of TiO₂ nanosheets with dominant (001) facets. It can be ascribed to the fact that alcohol acted as a capping agent, can hinder the growth of the anatase single crystals because of its specific binding with the TiO₂ surface of the Ti–O–C bond [94]. The visible-light photocatalytic activity of nitrogen NTNs and nitrogen doped TiO₂ microcrystalline (NTMs) was evaluated by detection of •OH and photocatalytic hydrogen production in methanol aqueous solutions by measurement of the fluorescence spectra of visible light irradiated terephthalic acid solution/NTNs system. The linear relationship between fluorescence intensity and irradiation time indicated that the amount of •OH generated on the TiO₂ surface is proportional to the irradiation time during the photocatalytic process, confirming the stability of the NTNs. Importantly, the rate of •OH formation on NTNs is much higher than that on NTMs, indicating that the specific surface area plays an important role in the photocatalytic reaction due to the large amount of surface active sites [94]. Comparison of photocatalytic H₂-production rates obtained for the NTNs and NTMs loaded with 0.5 wt% Pt under visible-light irradiation using methanol as a scavenger showed that the H₂-production rate of the NTNs (865 μmol h^{−1} g^{−1} with a 3.7 apparent quantum efficiency at 420 nm) is much higher (4.1 times) than that of the NTMs (211 μmol h^{−1} g^{−1}) [94].

Xiang et al. prepared nitrogen and sulfur co-doped TiO₂ nanosheets with exposed (001) facets (N–S–TiO₂) by a simple mixing-calcination method using the hydrothermally prepared TiO₂ nanosheets powder as a precursor and thiourea as a dopant [87]. A comparison of the N–S–TiO₂ samples with pure TiO₂ show two prominent absorption features: (a) the appearance of new

absorption shoulders around 380–500 nm, and (b) a significant enhancement of absorbance in the range of 550–750 nm. The first-principle DFT calculations confirmed that the N and S co-dopants can induce the formation of new energy levels in the band gap, which results in the visible light response of N–S–TiO₂ nanosheets. The XPS analysis showed that nitrogen and sulfur atoms are incorporated into the lattice of TiO₂ via interstitial N-doping and cationic substitution-type S-doping, respectively [87]. It was observed that N–S co-doped TiO₂ nanosheets exhibited much higher photocatalytic activity than pure TiO₂ nanosheets and N,S co-doped TiO₂ nanoparticles because of their enhanced visible-light absorption and exposed (001) facets [87]. The XPS analysis showed that nitrogen and sulfur atoms are incorporated into the lattice of TiO₂ via interstitial N-doping and cationic substitution-type S-doping, respectively [87]. The visible-light induced photocatalytic activity of the doped samples was evaluated by degradation of 4-chlorophenol in aqueous solution. Activity of N–S–TiO₂ nanosheets was higher than that of pure (un-doped) TiO₂ nanosheets due to the enhanced visible-light absorbance. The observed enhancement in the visible-light photocatalytic activity is mainly due to the synergetic effects of two factors: (i) the red-shift of absorption edges and intense absorption in the visible-light region of the doped samples, and (ii) the exposure of highly reactive (001) facets of nanosheets [87]. Surprisingly, pure TiO₂ nanosheets also showed the visible light photocatalytic activity for the degradation of 4-CP due to substrate-surface complexation between TiO₂ and 4-CP, which extends the absorption of titania to visible light region through ligand to titanium charge transfer [87].

Shi et al. obtained nitrogen/sulfur co-doped anatase TiO₂ nanocrystals with a high specific surface area and a high percentage of (001) facets by a solvent-thermal process followed by the calcination with thiourea at an optimum heat treatment temperature [88]. The morphology control technique and the anion-doping technique were combined to further enhance the visible-light-activated photocatalytic performance of anatase TiO₂ single crystals with exposed (001) facets. By the adoption of the solvent-thermal process, nanosized anatase TiO₂ crystals with a high percentage of (001) facets were obtained which largely enhanced their specific surface areas. It had been demonstrated that anion co-doping may provide better visible-light absorption and photocatalytic performance than TiO₂ or singly doped TiO₂ with either dopant. To further enhance their visible-light activity, a nitrogen/sulfur co-doping was introduced into this material system by a proper heat treatment with thiourea to replace a small portion of oxygen atoms in the anatase lattice while preserving the exposed (001) facet morphology [88]. XPS analysis results, confirmed that nitrogen/sulfur co-doping was introduced after calcinations with thiourea in the structure of TiO₂ nanocrystals with a high percentage of (001) facets. The N 1s peak at 397.3 eV is associated with Ti–N bonding which clearly demonstrated that nitrogen atoms were doped into the anatase lattice and replaced a small portion of oxygen atoms during the synthesis process, while the N 1s peaks at 398.5 and 399.8 eV represent some organic impurities or chemisorbed N₂ on the sample surface. The doped N accounted for about 10.5% of the total N; thus, the doped N/Ti atomic ratio was determined at approximately 8.9%. The S 2p peak at 164.0 eV corresponded to the Ti–S

bonding, while the S 2p peak at 168.7 eV corresponded to the surface S atoms adsorbed as SO₂ molecules. The doped S accounted for about 34.8% of the total S; thus, the doped S/Ti atomic ratio was determined at approximately 1.0% [88]. The visible-light photocatalytic activities of the N-TiO₂ nanocrystals were evaluated by photocatalytic degradation of MB and inactivation of *E. coli* under visible-light illumination ($\lambda > 400$ nm). The nitrogen doped sample (calcined at 300 °C), demonstrated a much faster degradation effect on MB under visible-light illumination than both P25 TiO₂ and pure TiO₂. Within just 5 min, most of the MB in the solution was degraded, and the residual MB percentage dropped to just approximately 14%. After a 30-min treatment, the residual MB percentage was near zero, suggesting a complete degradation of MB [88]. The same sample demonstrated also a much better photocatalytic inactivation effect on *E. coli* under visible-light illumination than P25 and pure TiO₂. The survival ratio of *E. coli* showed a continuous decreasing trend with the increase of visible-light illumination time. After a 2-h treatment, the survival ratio of *E. coli* dropped to around 50% [88].

Noble metals have attracted significant interest due to their unique electronic, optical, and magnetic properties. It is reported that noble metals (such as Au, Ag, and Pt) can strongly absorb visible light due to their surface plasmon resonance (SPR) effect [95,96]. Thereafter, the noble metal nanoparticles deposited on TiO₂ were considered as an approach to extend the spectral response of TiO₂ to visible light. The photocatalytic activities of noble metal semiconductor nanocomposites are strongly related to their physical characteristics, such as size and shape. It was shown for Au nanoparticles, that their catalytic activities are very sensitive to their sizes. Gold nanoparticles less than 5 nm in size are very active catalysts. Large gold nanoparticles supported on metal oxide or carbon with diameter of about 50 nm and more exhibit photocatalytic activity for hydrogen production, environmental pollution control, low-temperature catalytic combustion and reduction of nitrogen oxides [97].

Zhu et al. prepared visible-light-driven plasmonic photocatalyst Au/TiO₂ nanosheets with a high percentage of exposed (001) facets by hydrothermal treatment of tetrabutyl titanate and hydrofluoric acid, followed by the sulfide-mediated thiol reduction process [98]. Zhu et al. prepared a series of Au/TiO₂ nanosheets loaded with different amount of Au (Au wt% = 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, and 2.0) [98].

From diffuse reflectance spectra of the pure TiO₂-001 and the Au-modified TiO₂-001 it can be apparently observed that the Au-TiO₂-001 samples have a stronger absorption in the visible light region due to the SPR effect of Au deposited on TiO₂ surface. The absorption peak appeared at 546 nm is assigned to the characteristic SPR peak of Au nanoparticles. It was observed that with increasing content of Au, the absorption intensity of Au SPR peak significantly enhanced [98]. XPS analysis showed that the oxidation states of Au on TiO₂-001 are Au⁰. For Au, the core lines are fixed at 87.4 eV (Au 4f_{7/2}) and the spin orbit separations are 3.6 eV [98]. It is reported that after supporting of Au NPs on

the surface of TiO₂-001, the Au/TiO₂-001 photocatalysts showed much higher photocatalytic activity than the bare TiO₂-001 for the degradation of RhB in aqueous solution under visible light, and the Au1.0/TiO₂-001 photocatalyst exhibits the highest photocatalytic efficiency among all the samples [98]. Moreover, the degradation rate of RhB over Au/TiO₂-001 is much faster than that for other Au-modified photocatalysts, such as Au/P25, Au/anatase TiO₂ and Au/rutile TiO₂. Observed enhancement in the visible-light photocatalytic activity could be related due to the synergetic effects of three factors: (1) the exposure of highly reactive (001) facets for nanosheets; (2) the higher migration rate of injected electrons from photo-excited Au to (001) facet compared with the other facets; (3) the more adsorption of pollutant molecules on (001) facet with high surface energy [98]. Zhu et al. stated that under visible light irradiation, a charge carriers have been produced by the SPR effect of Au NPs on the TiO₂-001 surface. Due to the photo-generated electrons with a more negative potential compared with the conduction band (CB) level of TiO₂-001, the electrons would transfer from an excited Au nanoparticles to a TiO₂ particle. The photocatalytic degradation of RhB would start from holes (*Au⁺) attack. At the same time, the photo-generated electron injected into the conduction band of TiO₂ might be trapped by adsorbed oxygen to form *O₂⁻ radicals. And then, the *O₂⁻ radicals can further react with H⁺ and the trapped electron to produce H₂O₂ in aqueous solution. The formed H₂O₂ would be transformed into *OH radicals by capturing an electron. Finally, the reactants may be destroyed by the forming *O₂⁻ and *OH radicals. In addition, the adsorbed RhB molecule can be photo-excited to form RhB* radical which may also transfer an electron to the CB of TiO₂ to form RhB^{•+}. This photosensitization process would also lead to the decomposition of RhB [98].

Zhu et al. synthesized Pt/TiO₂ nanosheets with exposed (001) facets by hydrothermal treatment of tetrabutyl titanate and hydrofluoric acid mixture followed by the photochemical reduction deposition of Pt nanoparticles on TiO₂ nanosheets and discussed the effect of the Pt loading content on the rates of photocatalytic hydrogen production (see details in Table 6) [99]. TiO₂ nanosheets (NS1) fabricated by hydrothermal method without Pt deposition consists of well-defined sheet-shaped structures having a rectangular outline with an average side length of ca. 50–80 nm and thickness of ca. 6 nm. HRTEM image indicates that the lattice spacing parallel to the top and bottom facets is ca. 0.235 nm, corresponding to the (001) planes of anatase TiO₂. On the basis of the TEM results, the percentage of exposed (001) facets on the TiO₂ nanosheets is ca. 75%. Pt nanoparticles with average diameter of ca. 2–4 nm are clearly observed due to their high electron density and good immobilization on the surface of TiO₂ nanosheets. HRTEM image of Pt nanoparticles indicates that the lattice fringes of 0.227 nm match the crystallographic planes of Pt (111) [99]. The XPS analysis was carried out to determine chemical composition of Pt/TiO₂ nanosheets and to identify the chemical status of Pt in samples. The binding energies corresponding to Pt 4f_{7/2} and Pt 4f_{5/2}

Table 6

Experimental conditions for the preparation of TiO₂/Pt samples and their photocatalytic activity in hydrogen production process. Reprinted from ref. [100].

| Sample label | R _F | Morphology | Phase ^a | Pt weight ratio R _{Pt} | Composition | Color | Crystalline size (nm) | S _{BET} (m ² /g) | Activity (μmol h ⁻¹) |
|--------------|----------------|---------------|--------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------|------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| NS1 | 1 | Nanosheets | A | 0 | TiO ₂ /F | White | 14.9 | 108 | 3.0 |
| NS2 | 1 | Nanosheets | A | 0.5 | TiO ₂ /F/Pt | Light gray | 15.1 | 101 | 236.6 |
| NS3 | 1 | Nanosheets | A | 1 | TiO ₂ /F/Pt | Light gray | 15.2 | 96 | 306.5 |
| NS4 | 1 | Nanosheets | A | 2 | TiO ₂ /F/Pt | Gray | 15.0 | 94 | 333.5 |
| NS5 | 1 | Nanosheets | A | 4 | TiO ₂ /F/Pt | Black | 14.9 | 93 | 308.7 |
| NS6 | 1 | Nanosheets | A | 6 | TiO ₂ /F/Pt | Black | 14.8 | 84 | 270.9 |
| NS7 | 1 | Nanosheets | A | 2 | TiO ₂ /F/Pt | Gray | 15.1 | 104 | 185.0 |
| P25 | 0 | nanoparticles | A, R | 2 | TiO ₂ /Pt | Gray | 30.1 | 41 | 223.4 |
| NP | 0 | nanoparticles | A | 2 | TiO ₂ /Pt | Gray | 12.0 | 105 | 170.2 |

^a A and R denote anatase and rutile, respectively.

were 70.7 and 74.0 eV, respectively, indicative of metallic Pt. The 3.33 eV difference between the binding energies of Pt 4f_{7/2} and Pt 4f_{5/5} peaks is also characteristic of metallic Pt4f states [99]. The photocatalytic activity in hydrogen production of the Pt-TiO₂ samples grew with increasing weight ratios of Pt (R_{Pt}) from 0.5 to 2. The highest photocatalytic activity, 333.5 $\mu\text{mol h}^{-1}$, was achieved for sample loaded with 2 wt% Pt; this value exceeds that of P25. A further increase of R_{Pt} caused a reduction of the photocatalytic activity. This is probably due to (i) partial blockage of the TiO₂ surface active sites due to excessive Pt and (ii) deterioration of the catalytic properties of metal nanoparticles due to their enlargement [99].

Yu et al. tried to explain the photocatalytic mechanism and detect the involved active species in the photocatalytic H₂ production [99]. In the presence of O₂ and in pure water, the electrons are excited from the valence band to the conduction band and then transferred to the adsorbed O₂ on the surface of TiO₂ to form the superoxide radical anions, (O₂^{•-}), which prevent the direct recombination of electrons and holes; meanwhile, the holes react with OH⁻/H₂O to produce •OH radicals. In the absence of O₂, the rates of electrons and holes recombination are faster than that of the reaction of holes and OH⁻/H₂O (no •OH radicals are observed in the absence of O₂). In the presence of Pt-TiO₂ samples the production of the •OH radicals was observed which implies that Pt is an effective electron acceptor. The production of •OH radicals for Pt-TiO₂ samples can be assigned to the fact that the excited electrons from the valence band to the conduction band can migrate to Pt nanoparticles and then react with H⁺ ions adsorbed to form H₂. The Pt nanoparticles on TiO₂ nanosheets produce a Schottky barrier, which facilitate the electron capture [99].

6. Perspectives and conclusions

Photocatalytic processes could be widely exploited for environmental and energy-related applications, such as photocatalytic water/air purification, hydrogen production by water splitting, low-cost solar cells, and organic synthesis, etc., as schematically shown in Fig. 12. However, from the practical point of view, photocatalytic material should be highly active, stable, recyclable, selective, and visible-light sensitive. Since Yang and co-workers [71] prepared anatase single crystals with 47% of the highly reactive (001) facets by using hydrofluoric acid (HF) as a capping agent under hydrothermal conditions, anatase TiO₂ nanosheets with dominant (001) facets seems to have great potential as advanced photocatalytic material [100]. Until today, anatase containing up to 90% of highly reactive (001) facets was successfully synthesized in the shape of nanosheets, truncated octahedral bipyramid or multi-facet microspheres.

Both theoretical and experimental studies indicate that the (001) surface of anatase TiO₂ is much more reactive than the thermodynamically more stable (101) surface, and the (001) surfaces may in fact be the dominant source of active sites for various applications (e.g., photocatalytic production of H₂). Unfortunately, most synthesized anatase TiO₂ crystals as well as those naturally occurring are dominated by the thermodynamically stable (101) facets (more than 94%, according to the Wulff construction), which greatly limits the applications of anatase crystals in catalysis, photocatalysis, and photocatalytic water splitting. Based on the literature review it can be stated that the selective adhesion of specific capping agents (typically, fluoride) on the (001) surface of anatase is crucial for maximizing the high-energy (001) facets. Moreover, the

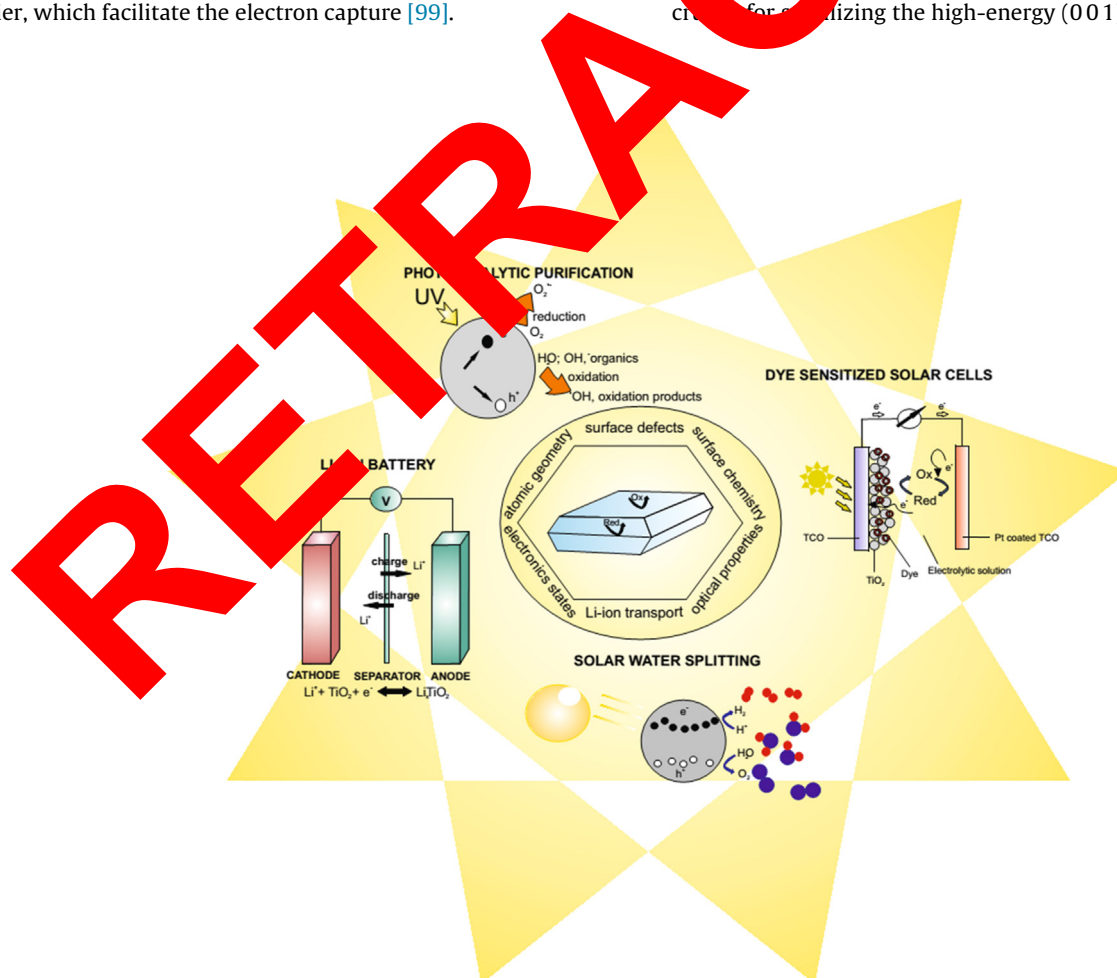


Fig. 12. Schematic diagram showing important applications of TiO₂ with high reactive facets.

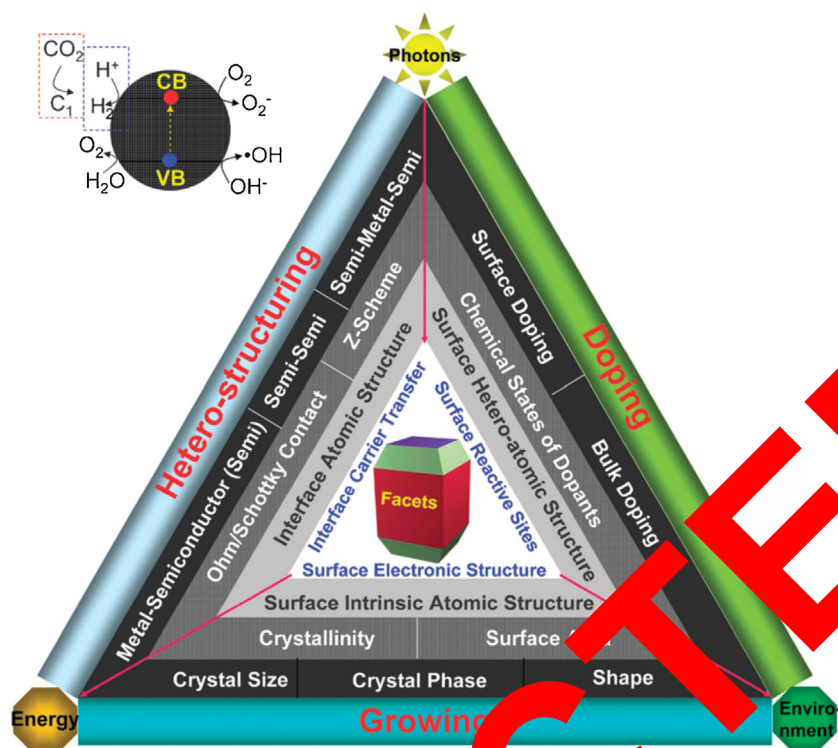


Fig. 13. Highlighted key points in growing, doping and heterostructuring of doped semiconductor photocatalysts. Reprinted from ref. [61].

degree of truncation, size and organization of anatase TiO_2 sheets can be controlled by selecting titania precursors, capping agents, solvent, and other reaction conditions. The unique geometrical and electronic properties associated with (001) facets are crucial for the charge separation and transfer occurring in photocatalytic redox processes, being a consequence of favored dissociative absorption and spatial separation of redox sites. Although significant progress has been achieved in the synthesis and assembly of (001) anatase nanosheets, further efforts are still required in this area to obtain nanomaterials suitable for advanced environmental and energy-related applications.

It is well known, that pure TiO_2 photocatalysis is suffered from weak visible-light absorption and high recombination rate of photoexcited electrons and holes. Thus, doping and heterostructuring are strategies that will definitely contribute to the development of more efficient faceted photocatalysts. Doping changes the surface atomic structure of facets and thus alters their photoreactivity. Heterostructuring allows efficient interfacial charge carrier transfer by constructing favorable interfaces with various facets from different crystals. The key points related to growing, doping and heterostructuring of doped photocatalysts were summarized by Liu et al. as shown in Fig. 13 [61]. They stated that a direct consequence of controlling the size, percentage of exposed (001) facets and organization of anatase TiO_2 crystals is the possibility of tuning the surface and electronic properties of this material and finally affecting its potential applications [63].

Presently, anatase TiO_2 with dominant (001) face – pure, doped and surface modified – are successfully synthesized in the laboratory scale mainly via hydrothermal process and gas phase reaction. The visible light photocatalysts could be obtained by incorporation of sulfur, nitrogen or carbon into TiO_2 structure or by surface modification of TiO_2 sheets with noble metal nanoparticles. Even at this stage of research, there is no data regarding stability of doped photocatalysts in the subsequent reaction cycles. Based on previous experience with non-metal doped TiO_2 nanoparticles, it could be expected that doped TiO_2 can lose photoactivity during

recycling and long-term storage. Additionally, the current problem with the synthesis of TiO_2 having dominant (001) facets is highly dependent on the reaction medium during preparation and small yield of TiO_2 generation. Thus, major challenges facing scientific and industrial community involved in photocatalytic research include:

- development a new synthesis strategy of decahedral TiO_2 with reduced or no fluorine containing compounds as capping agents,
- increase of synthesis efficiency and process scale-up,
- efficient doping or surface modification of decahedral TiO_2 to increase visible light utilization.

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